







UNITED STATES
OF
AMERICA

Approved & Published by the War Department

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AN
HISTORICAL,
TOPOGRAPHICAL, AND DESCRIPTIVE
VIEW
OF THE
UNITED STATES
OF
AMERICA,
AND OF
UPPER AND LOWER CANADA.
WITH AN APPENDIX,
Containing a brief and comprehensive Sketch of
THE PRESENT STATE OF
MEXICO AND SOUTH AMERICA,
AND ALSO OF THE
NATIVE TRIBES OF THE NEW WORLD.

COLLECTED, ARRANGED, AND DIGESTED,
From the best recent Authorities and original Communications,

BY E. MACKENZIE,

Author of the History of Egypt, and Editor of the History of Northumberland,
Select Biography, Statistic Tables, Modern Geography, &c. &c.

*Embellished and illustrated by a large correct Map, a Plan of
the City of Washington, and seven fine Engravings.*

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UNITED STATES

AMERICA

UPPER AND LOWER CANADA

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PREFACE.

AMERICA, since she conquered her independence, has risen into importance with a rapidity unparalleled in the history of mankind. In her plains and forests an industrious, enterprising, and intelligent population are daily creating new and extensive communities, and exhibiting the whole mystery of the generation as well as the growth of nations. The spectacle is imposing and instructive, notwithstanding the senseless ravings of animosity, or the affected sneers of a despicable enmity.

This marvellous empire already embraces a range of territory above thirty times the extent of Great Britain; and will, within one hundred and twenty years, if population increases in the same ratio as it has lately done, contain upwards of four hundred millions of human beings! Yet, even then it would not be equally populous with England. Without

supposing the intervention of some great and improbable political convulsion, no rational argument can be assigned why the capital and population of the Americans should not progressively accumulate, until the boundless extent of their fertile and unoccupied land be brought into cultivation.

'Where,' exclaims a popular journalist, 'is this prodigious increase of numbers, this vast extension of dominion, to end? What bounds has Nature set to the progress of this mighty nation? Let our jealousy burn as it may; let our intolerance of America be as unreasonably violent as we please; still it is plain that she is a power, in spite of us, rapidly rising to supremacy; or, at least, that each year so mightily augments her strength, as to overtake, by a most sensible distance, even the most formidable of her competitors. In foreign commerce, she comes nearer to England than any other maritime power; and already her mercantile navy is within a few thousand tons of our own! If she goes on as rapidly for two or three years, she must overtake and outstrip us.'

But instead of viewing every step America advances in renown with absurd and groundless dismay, England ought to rejoice in the growing strength and happiness of her daughter, who has become respectable and glorious by exercising the virtues of her parent. Their interests, whether moral, political, or commercial, are inseparably

united;* and should hordes of barbarians again threaten the existence of liberty and civilization in the west of Europe, America may become the right arm of British strength, or perhaps the last asylum of British liberty. 'When the nation,' says Dr. Smollett, 'is enslaved by domestic despotism, or foreign dominion; when her substance is wasted, her spirit broken, and the laws and constitution of England are no more; then these colonies, sent off by our fathers, may receive and entertain their sons, as hopeless exiles and ruined refugees.'

The writer has no intention of exhibiting emigration in a tempting and illusive point of view. Such attempts are certainly blameable, though their consequences are far from being alarming; for, under *ordinary* circumstances, the emigrants from any community must always bear a small proportion to the whole population. After all, says Dr. Smith, man is of all luggage the most difficult to be transported. In truth, he takes such root wherever he has been planted, that, long after almost all nourishment has been extracted from it, we find him cling to the bare rocks, and rather

* The eminent importance of the American trade is evinced by the fact, that of the whole exports from the United States in 1816, one half went to Great Britain and her dominions; and in 1815 the amount of goods imported was eighty-six millions of dollars, of which seventy-one millions was imported from Great Britain and her dependencies!

withier than be torn away. It is in vain to remind him how bleak the sky, how scanty the nutriment, how exposed to tempests the position. We find him rebuilding his cottage upon the half-cooled lava which has swept all his possessions away, and obstinately refusing to quit a spot of earth which the perpetual conflicts of the elements hardly leave at rest for a day.' He knows all his privations, his sufferings, his risks; but he deems it all not too high a price for the endearing idea of *home*—the love of country—and the thousand ties of society and friendship. Thus has Providence, by a powerful instinct, provided against an excess of emigration.

Let not the dissipated, the ambitious, the petulant, or the discontented, deceive themselves, and wander into other climates and situations in search of happiness. 'The wilds of America will yield no repose to their perturbed spirits. The fiends will migrate with them.'

However, the industrious labourer, the mechanic, the farmer, the man of moderate capital, and the father of a family who feels solicitous about settling his children; in short, all those who are prepared to encounter the numerous privations and inconveniences of emigration, in order to enjoy the great and acknowledged advantages which America offers to adventurers, will find this work a **FAITHFUL AND USEFUL GUIDE**. And this is extremely difficult to obtain, notwithstanding the numerous, ex-

pensive, and valuable works recently published on the subject. Travellers and emigrants have viewed America with different feelings. Some observe every object with delight and admiration, while others experience all the chagrin of disappointment. It, however, has been the aim of the editor to compare with candour the contradictory evidence of different writers, and to draw such conclusions as the case seemed to justify.

The editor has also paid particular attention to the rate of wages and of the markets, the expences of living, the comparative advantages of different states and settlements, and the cautions necessary to be observed by new settlers. The present state of the wealth and resources, and of the commercial regulations of the United States, is drawn entirely from authentic documents.

The judicious reader will readily appreciate the attention and diligence employed in compiling this work, and acknowledge the value of the original matter which it contains; and which embraces the substance of upwards of *one hundred letters* lately received by different individuals from their correspondents in America. Some gentlemen have been in the habit of collecting copies of interesting letters from the New World; and the liberality with which the editor has been favoured with the loan of their MSS. merits his best thanks, and will in the proper place be acknowledged.

In collecting materials for this compilation, the editor has consulted every recent and valuable publication on the present state of North America, and to which references will occasionally be made. Exclusive of the information derived through private channels, he has been most indebted to the following able and instructive works, viz.---

- Morse's American Geography.
Maclure's Geology of the United States of America.
Imlay and Filson's Account of Kentucky.
Travels through the United States and Canada, by Isaac Weld, jun.
Michaux's Travels in North America, 1802.
Grey's Letters from Canada, 1806; 7, and 8.
Lambert's Travels through Canada and the United States, 1808.
Travels in North America in 1809, 10, and 11, by John Bradbury, F. L. S.
Travels in Canada and the United States in 1816-7, by lieutenant Hall, 14th light dragoons.
Palmer's Journal of Travels in the United States of North America and in Lower Canada.
Bristed's Resources of the United States.
Mellish's Travels and Directory through the United States for 1818.
Statistical View of the United States, by T. Pitkin, Representative from the State of Connecticut, 1817.
Hints to Emigrants, by the Shamrock Society of New York, 1816.
A Year's Residence in the United States, by Mr. Cobbett, 1818.
Morris Birkbeck's Notes on a Journey in America, 1818.
——— Letters from the Illinois, 1818.
Fearon's Sketches in America, 1818.

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GENERAL

VIEW OF AMERICA.

PREVIOUS to entering upon a detailed description of the great American commonwealth, it will be proper to take a general view of the extensive continent of which it forms a part, and of the epochs of the various discoveries.

America, or, as it is frequently denominated by way of eminence, the **NEW WORLD**, has, in many respects, been peculiarly favoured by nature; and seems destined, in the course of human affairs, to assume an important rank, both natural and political.

The first circumstance that strikes us on viewing the **New World** is its immense extent. It constitutes a new hemisphere, larger than either Europe, Asia, or Africa, the three noted divisions of the ancient continent; and is not much inferior in dimensions to a third part of the habitable globe.

The division of this continent into two parts, called **North** and **South America**, is strongly marked by the hand of nature, in a narrow isthmus, and by a great variety in the languages and manners of the original inhabitants. The general consideration of this quarter of the globe will, therefore, receive far more clearness and precision by being thus divided. Those authors who blend the whole into one description confound their topics by a heterogeneous mixture.

The southern limit of the American continent is clearly estimated from the strait of Magellan; but the northern extent is not ascertained with equal precision. Its limit may extend to 80 degrees, or perhaps to the pole. The journeys of Hearne and Mackenzie have, indeed, imparted some idea of its confines on the Arctic ocean; but Baffin's bay remains to be explored, except the late discovery ships have effected part of this desideratum in geography. Amidst existing uncertainties, it will, however, be sufficient to estimate the northern limit of America from the 72d degree of north latitude; a space of 126 degrees. In South America the greatest breadth is from cape Blanco in the west to St. Roque in the east, which, according to the best maps, is 48 degrees. But in the north the breadth may be computed from the promontory of Alaska to the most eastern point of Labrador, or even of Greenland, which would add more than a third part of the estimate. In British miles the length of America may be estimated at 8800; and the breadth of North America at 4400, and that of the southern continent at 3200.

NORTH AMERICA.

Climate.—The climate of North America is extremely various, as may be conceived in a region extending from the vicinity of the equator to the arctic circle. In general, the heat of summer, and the cold of winter, are more intense than in most parts of the ancient continent. The predominant winds are here from the west; and the severest cold is from the north-west. The middle provinces are remarkable for the unsteadiness of the weather, particularly the quick transitions from heat to cold. Snow falls plentifully in Virginia, but seldom lies above a day or two; yet after a mild, or even warm day, James river, where it is two or three miles in breadth, has in one night been clothed with ice, so as to be passed by travellers. Such surprising alterations seem to proceed from the sudden change of the wind to the north-west. The provinces of South Carolina and Florida are subject to unsufferable heat, furious whirlwinds, hurricanes, tremendous thunder,

and fatal lightnings; and the sudden changes of the weather are alike pernicious to the human frame. A violent tuffoon happened near Charlestown in 1761, appearing like a column of smoke, with a noise like thunder, ploughing the very beds of the rivers, and diffusing universal destruction throughout its progress. Few opportunities have yet arisen for accurate accounts of the climate in the western parts of North America. That of California seems to be in general moderate and pleasant, though somewhat incommoded by the heat of summer. In lat. 59 deg. the land has a most barren and wintry appearance, even in June: the gloom is increased by frequent fogs, and the glaciers seem perpetual.

Inland Seas.—Among the inland seas of North America may be mentioned the gulfs of Mexico, California, and St. Lawrence; with Hudson's and Baffin's bays. Of all these seas the gulf of Mexico is the most celebrated, as lying in a more favourable climate, and presenting at its entrance that grand archipelago of North American islands called the West Indies. From this gulf a singular current sets towards the north-east: this current, called the gulf stream, passes to the banks of Newfoundland, and is supposed to proceed from the accumulation of waters by the trade wind. It is distinguished from other parts of the ocean by the gulf weed; is eight or ten degrees warmer; never sparkles in the night; and, when it arrives in cool latitudes, produces thick fogs. The trade wind, or diurnal sea breeze, is from the east and its collateral points, with little intermission, for nine months in the year. To the south of the gulf of Mexico is the bay of Honduras, well known in the annals of English commerce. The opposite shore presents the gulf of California, which seems an estuary of two large rivers.

The gulf of St. Lawrence is the well known estuary of a river of the same name, generally frozen from December to April. This noble gulf is closed by the island of Newfoundland, and by numerous sand-banks, particularly what is called the Great Bank. This celebrated fishing station is more than 400 miles in length, by about 140 in breadth; the water being from 22 to 50 fathoms, with a great swell, and frequently a

thick fog. The chief fishery begins on the 10th of May, and continues till the end of September; the greatest number of cod fish taken by a single fisherman being twelve thousand, but the average is seven thousand: the largest fish was four feet three inches in length, and weighed forty-six pounds. More than 500 English vessels commonly fish on the bank. By a late regulation, the Americans are prohibited from fishing here; but permission is given to the subjects of Louis XVIII. There are also great fisheries on the banks which lie off the coasts of Nova Scotia.

Hudson sea extends from the entrance westward 1050 British miles; thus exceeding the Baltic in length as well as breadth. The shores are generally rocky and precipitous, and the climate almost the perpetual abode of winter. Davis' gulf or sea may be considered as part of Hudson's sea, and probably joins the arctic ocean. Baffin's bay is 870 British miles in length, and nearly as much in breadth.

Lakes.—The lakes Superior, Michigan, and Huron, constitute one large inland sea, which might be called the sea of Canada, or that of Huron. This expansion of water is about 350 miles in length, and more than 100 at its greatest breadth. Lake SUPERIOR is not less than 1500 miles in circumference. The greater part of the coast seems to consist of rocks and uneven ground. The water is pure and transparent; and the bottom generally composed of large rocks. There are several islands, one of which called Minong is about 60 miles in length: the savages suppose that these islands are residences of the Great Spirit. More than thirty rivers fall into this lake, some of them of considerable size. The chief fish are sturgeon and trout; the latter being caught at all seasons, and said to weigh from twelve to fifty pounds. This part of the sea of Canada opens into the lake Huron, by the straits of St. Mary, about 40 miles in length, and in some places only one or two miles in breadth; with a rapide towards the north-west extremity, which may, however, be descended by canoes; and the prospects are here delightful. The storms on this large expanse of water are as dangerous as those on the ocean, the waves breaking more quick, and running nearly as high. The

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circumference of that part called lake HURON is said to be about 1000 miles; and on the northern side are some islands called Manatulan, implying the place of spirits. Another short strait leads into the third lake, called MICHIGAN, also navigable for ships of any burthen. When the population of North America shall have diffused itself towards the west, these lakes may become the seats of flourishing cities, and of arts and sciences now unknown in Europe. Their latitude corresponds with that of the Black sea and the gulf of Venice; nor are the rigours of the Baltic here to be apprehended. From the descriptions, it does not appear that these lakes are ever impeded with ice.

The lake of Winnipeg or Winipic may also well aspire to the name of an inland sea: but it yields considerably to the great Slave lake, or rather sea, a recent discovery, from which Mackenzie's river extends its course to the arctic ocean. The Slave sea, according to Mr. Arrowsmith's maps, is about 200 miles in length, by 100 at its greatest breadth.

The smaller lakes shall be briefly described in the divisions of territory to which they belong. It may here suffice to observe, that there are probably above two hundred lakes of considerable size in North America; a singularity which distinguishes it from any other portion of the globe.

Rivers.—All the features of nature in America are upon a grand scale. The rivers are peculiarly noble. The source of the Mississippi has been traced to three small lakes above lat. 47 deg. and it enters the sea in lat. 29 deg. after a comparative course of about 2000 British miles. Nay, of late, the sources of the Missouri (the chief stream) have been detected about 3000 British miles more remote. The account of this noble river shall be transcribed from a recent system of American geography, by Mr. Morse, who must have had several opportunities of being well informed.

'The Mississippi receives the waters of the Ohio and Illinois, and their numerous branches from the east; and of the Missouri and other rivers from the west. These mighty streams united are borne down with increasing majesty, through vast forests and meadows, and discharged into the gulf of

Mexico. The great length and uncommon depth of this river, says Mr. Hutchins, and the excessive muddiness and salubrious quality of its waters after its junction with the Missouri, are very singular. The direction of the channel is so crooked, that from New Orleans to the mouth of the Ohio, a distance which does not exceed 460 miles in a straight line, is about 856 by water.

‘In the spring floods, the Mississippi is very high, and the current so strong, that it is with difficulty it can be ascended; but this disadvantage is remedied in some measure by eddies, or counter currents, which are generally found in the bends close to the banks of the river, and assist the ascending boats. The current at this season descends at the rate of about five miles an hour. In autumn, when the waters are low, it does not run faster than two miles; but it is rapid in such parts of the river as have clusters of islands, shoals, and sand banks. The circumference of many of these shoals being several miles, the voyage is longer, and in some places more dangerous, than in the spring. The merchandise necessary for the commerce of the Upper Settlements, on or near the Mississippi, is conveyed in the spring and autumn, in batteaux, rowed by eighteen or twenty men, and carrying about forty tons. From New Orleans to the Illinois the voyage is commonly performed in eight or ten weeks. A prodigious number of islands, some of which are of great extent, intersperse that mighty river. Its waters, after overflowing its banks below the river Iberville on the east, and the river Rouge on the west, never return within them again, there being many outlets or streams by which they are conducted into the bay of Mexico, more especially on the west side of the Mississippi, dividing the country into numerous islands. These singularities distinguish it from every other known river in the world. The island of New Orleans, and the lands opposite, are to all appearance of no long date, having evidently been formed by the mud and trees carried down the river, and having an appearance similar to the Delta in Egypt.

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wards of three thousand miles from the sea as the river runs. We only know that from St. Anthony's falls in lat. 45 deg. it glides with a pleasant clear current, and receives many large and tributary streams, before its junction with the Missouri, without greatly increasing the breadth of the Mississippi, though they do its depth and rapidity. The muddy waters of the Missouri discolour the lower part of the river, till it empties into the bay of Mexico. The Missouri is a longer, broader, and deeper river than the Mississippi, and affords a more extensive navigation ; it is, in fact, the principal river, contributing more to the common stream than does the Mississippi.

'The slime which the annual floods of the river Mississippi leave on the surface of the adjacent shores, may be compared with that of the Nile, which deposits a similar manure, and for many centuries past has insured the fertility of Egypt. When its banks shall have been cultivated, as the excellency of its soil and temperature of the climate deserve, its population will equal that of any other part of the world. The trade, wealth, and power of America may at some future period depend, and perhaps centre, upon the Mississippi. Whoever will for a moment cast his eye over a map of the town of New Orleans, and the immense country around it, and view its advantageous situation, must be convinced that it, or some place near it, must in process of time become one of the greatest marts in the world.

'The Ohio is a most beautiful river. Its current gentle, waters clear, and bosom smooth and unbroken by rocks and rapids, a single instance only excepted. It is one quarter of a mile wide at fort Pitt ; 500 yards at the mouth of the Great Kanaway ; 1200 yards at Louisville ; and the rapids half a mile in some few places below Louisville : but its general breadth does not exceed 600 yards. In some places its width is not 400 ; and in one place particularly, far below the rapids, it is less than 300. Its breadth in one place exceeds 1200 yards ; and at its junction with the Mississippi, neither river is more than 900 yards wide.'

Mr. Morse states the precise measurement of the length of the Ohio, with all its windings, from fort Pitt to its junction with the Mississippi; amounting to 1188 miles. The inundations commonly begin with April, and subside in July. A vessel drawing twelve feet water might safely navigate from Pittsburg to the sea. Two great rivers unite to form the Ohio, namely, the Monongahela and the Allegany, both of them subservient to navigation.

From this it appears that the Missouri is the chief river of what is called the Mississippi. Charlevoix has described the confluence as the grandest in the world. Each river is about half a league in breadth; but the Missouri is the broadest and most rapid; and Mr. Hutchins observes, that the natives still call it Meschasipi. The same author adds, that the Missouri 'affords a more extensive navigation, and is a longer, broader, and deeper river than the Mississippi.'

The noble river of St. Lawrence is universally regarded as the second in North America, being not less than 90 miles wide at its mouth, and navigable for ships of the line as far as Quebec, a distance of 400 miles from the sea. Near Quebec it is five miles in breadth; and at Montreal from two to four. Though there be some rapids, yet this grand river may be considered as navigable to Kingston, and the lake Ontario, 748 miles from the sea. It is difficult to define the precise source of the St. Lawrence, though that name be generally confined to the river issuing from lake Ontario; while the Niagara, which flows from the lake Erie, is regarded as a distinct stream. The length of the St. Lawrence may therefore be above 700 British miles, the breadth being the grand characteristic.

The other chief rivers in North America are the Saskashawin, the Athabasca, the Unjiga or Mackenzie's river, the Rio Bravo, which flows into the gulf of Mexico; that of Albany, which joins Hudson's bay: Nelson river and Churchill river are also considerable streams which flow into that sea; but their geography is far from being perfect. The same observation must be extended to the Oregon, or great river of the west, which

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confined by a chain of mountains, runs south, till by a western bend it join the Pacific. But the discovery of the western regions of America may disclose some considerable streams in that quarter.

Mountains.—The centre of North America seems to present a vast fertile plain, watered by the Missouri and its auxiliary streams. On the west, so far as discovered, a range of mountains proceeds from New Mexico in a northern direction, and joins the ridge called the Stoney Mountains, which extend to the vicinity of the arctic ocean. The Stoney Mountains are said to be about 3500 feet above their base, which may perhaps be 3000 feet above the sea. In general, from the accounts of navigators who have visited this coast, it seems to resemble that of Norway, being a wide alpine country of great extent; while the shore, like that of Norway, presents innumerable creeks and islands. This alpine tract, from the Stoney Mountains and Mackenzie's river westwards to the source of the Oregon and Beering's strait, may perhaps contain the highest mountains in North America, when explored by the eye of science. On the north-east, Greenland, Labrador, and the countries around Hudson sea, present irregular masses covered with eternal snow, with black naked peaks, resembling the spires of the Alps, but of far inferior elevation, the mountains generally decreasing in height towards the pole. Mr. Mackenzie observes, that a high ridge passes south-west from the coast of Labrador to the source of the Utawas, dividing the rivers that fall into the St. Lawrence and Hudson's bay. The Stoney Mountains run parallel with the Pacific Ocean from Cook's entry to the river Columbia, where they are more distant from the coast and less elevated.

The most celebrated mountains in North America are those called the Apalachian, passing through the territory of the United States from the south-west to the north-east. According to the best maps, they commence on the north of Georgia, where they give source to many rivers running south to the Gulf of Mexico; and to the Tenassee and other rivers running north. There are several collateral ridges, as the Iron or Bald Mountains, the White Oak Mountains, and others; the exte-

rior skirt on the north-west being the Cumberland Mountains. The Apalachian chain thence extends through the western territory of Virginia, accompanied with its collateral ridges, the breadth of the whole being often seventy miles, and proceeds through Pennsylvania; then passes Hudson river; and afterwards rises to more elevation, but seems to expire in the country of New Brunswick. The chief summits appear to be in the province of New Hampshire, where the White Mountains are by some reported to be 9000 feet above the sea. But it may well be affirmed that they cannot much exceed 4000 feet: and the glaciers of the Pyrenees at 9000 feet shew the futility of the calculation.

The Apalachian chain may thus extend about 900 geographical miles, a length unrivalled by any European mountains, except the Norwegian alps. In no chain perhaps are the collateral ridges more distinct; and a naturalist would at once pronounce that the central, or highest, must be granitic, the next schistose, and the exterior belts calcareous. The height of the chief summits does not appear to be precisely ascertained, but probably does not exceed 3000 feet above the sea; and they are often clothed with forests.

The mountains in the isthmus, as well as those in the western part of North America, are certainly of far superior elevation: and in most maritime divisions of the old and new continents, the highest mountains are towards the west, as their most precipitous sides uniformly front the west and south. But of the isthmus, the kingdom of Mexico, and California, the natural history and geography are far from being clearly illustrated.

Such are the most striking and peculiar features of nature in the North American continent. The botany, mineralogy, and zoology of this grand division of the New World, will be detailed when we come to exhibit the natural history of the United States.

SOUTH AMERICA:

Climate.—The boundaries and extent of this division of the new continent have been already explained. The climate of

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the southern extremity, extending far beyond that of Africa, is exposed to all the horrors of the antarctic frosts; and Terra del Fuego in the south lat. of 55 deg. seems exposed to the almost perpetual winter of Greenland in north lat. 70 deg. Patagonia, consisting mostly of open deserts and savannas; with a few willow trees on the rivers, seems to enjoy a temperate but rather cool climate. On proceeding towards the north, the great chain of the Andes constitutes real zones and climates, which strangely contradict the theories of ancient geographers; the chief inconveniences of the torrid zone being extreme cold on the mountains, and extreme moisture in the plains. Near Callao the months of October and November form the spring. In Peru what is called summer is the dry season, often extremely cold; and the rainy season is called winter. The former begins in May, which is nearly the beginning of winter in the lower parts, and continues till November, when the slight fogs, called winter in the vales, begin to disperse. On the mountains winter begins in December, which in the plains is the first month of summer; and a journey of four hours conducts the traveller from one season to another. At Quito, situated between two chains of the Andes, on a plain of remarkable elevation, the months from September to May or June constitute the winter, and the other months the summer; the former being exposed to almost constant rains, which are also frequent, but at longer intervals, during the summer season. At Carthagená the winter, or rainy season, extends, on the contrary, from May to November; and the summer, or dry season, from December to April. At Panama the summer begins rather later, and ends sooner. At Lima, in a southern latitude corresponding with the northern of Carthagená, the heat is far more moderate; and spring begins with December, winter with July: the summer is in February, the autumn in May.

In general, the confined regions on the west of the Andes are dry, the clouds being arrested by their summits; while the wide countries on the east of the chain are exposed to torrents of rain, from the eastern or trade winds blowing over the Atlantic. In Brazil the rainy season begins in March or

April, and ends in August, when the spring begins, or rather the summer; the distinction being only between wet and dry seasons.

Lakes.—No part of the globe displays so great a number of lakes as North America; and the southern part of the new continent is perhaps equally remarkable by their rarity. Many supposed lakes, as that of Zarayos or Sharayos, in the course of the river Paraguay, only exist during the annual inundations, which are on a far grander scale than those of the Ganges, and may be said to deluge whole provinces. In the most northern part the lagoon of Maracaybo is remarkable, being a circular bason about 100 British miles in diameter, receiving numerous rivers and rivulets, and communicating with the sea by a considerable creek. The celebrated lake Parima, called also Parapitinka, or the White sea, is represented by La Cruz as more than 100 British miles in length by 50 in breadth. This size, and even its existence, have been doubted, as it was the seat of the noted city El Dorado, the streets of which were paved with gold; a fable which seems to have arisen from a rock of talc reflecting, like a mirror, the golden rays of the sun.

In Amazonia and Brazil there do not appear to be any lakes of consequence. That of Titiaca, in the kingdom of Peru, is regarded as the most important in South America. Ulloa says that it is of an oval figure, the circumference about 240 miles; and the depth 70 or 80 fathoms. It receives ten or twelve rivers and several rivulets; but the water, though not saline, is nauseous, being probably tainted with sulphur or bitumen. It contains two kinds of fish, and is frequented by geese and wild fowl. In an isle of this lake, Mango Capac, the founder of the Peruvian monarchy, reported that the sun, his father, had placed him, with his sister, and consort, Oello; and here a temple was dedicated to the sun, the most splendid in the kingdom, and profusely decorated with plates of gold and silver. On the Spanish invasion, these treasures are said to have been thrown into the lake.

A few small lakes are found near the course of the river Parana; and towards the south of Chili there are some of considerable size.

Rivers.—The river of Amazons, so called from a female tribe inured to arms, discovered on its banks by the first navigators, but more properly by a native term, the Marañon, is celebrated as the most distinguished river, not only in South America, but in the whole world: and this reputation is no doubt just, when its magnitude is considered. The source is not yet absolutely ascertained. The original and proper Marañon is supposed to be the Apurimac, which joins another large river west of the great lake Titicaca, south lat. 16 deg. 30 min. This noble river, in struggling through the Andes, must afford many striking scenes still lost to scientific observation. Ulloa calculates the course of the Marañon at 3800 miles; but it is probably much more. Like the Missouri and St. Lawrence, the Marañon is discoloured with mud. The breadth at the Portuguese boundary is said to be a league, but it is generally about two miles; and no bottom is found at 108 fathoms. The effect of the tides is perceivable at the distance of 600 miles, but Condamine thinks that the swell is occasioned by the progress of the tide the preceding day. The banks are generally crowned with vast forests of lofty trees, among which are many of a rare and medicinal nature. Serpents of prodigious size are found in the marshes, and alligators are also common. It seems certain, from the disquisition of Condamine, that some female warriors still exist towards the north of this great river. After it has received the Shingú, the breadth from shore to shore cannot be discovered by the eye. Near its mouth the Bore rises from twelve to fifteen feet in height; and the noise of this irruption is heard at the distance of two leagues.

The Rio de la Plata, or river of Silver, is the conjunct flood of the Paraguay, the Pilcomayo, the Parana, and the Urucuary. The main streams are the Paraguay and the Parana; and it would seem that the latter is the longest and most considerable, rising in the great mine mountains of Brazil, lat. 19 deg., and bending south, then west, till it receive the Iba Parana, after which it bends south-west till it is joined by the Paraguay, while the conjunct rivers are still called the Parana by the natives, and the Rio de la Plata by the Spaniards. The grand

cataract of the Parana is in lat. 24 deg. not far from the city of Cuayra; but is rather a series of rapids, for a space of twelve leagues, amidst rocks of tremendous and singular forms. This noble river is also studded with numerous islands; and the Spanish vessels navigate to the town of Assumption, about 1200 miles from the sea. The breadth of the estuary is such, that the land cannot be discovered from a ship in the middle of the stream.

The third great river in South America is the Orinoco, of a most singular and perplexed course. According to La Cruz, it rises in the small lake of Ipava, north lat. 5 deg. 5 min.; and thence winds almost in a spiral form, until it enter the Atlantic ocean by an extended delta opposite to the isle of Trinidad; but the chief estuary is considerably to the south-east of that island. Many rivers of great size flow into the Orinoco; and in addition to its singular form, there are other remarkable peculiarities. There exists a communication between the Orinoco, the Marañon, and the Black river; a circumstance so uncommon, that when it only had been asserted by Spanish authors, it was rejected by geographical theorists as contrary to the usual course of nature. Little doubt can now remain concerning these wonderful inland navigations, thus prepared by the hand of nature, and which, in the possession of an industrious people, would render Guiana, or New Andalusia, one of the most flourishing countries in the world.

The other rivers of South America are comparatively of small account, the chief being the Magdalena, running north to the Caribbean sea; and that of St. Francis, which waters a great part of Brazil. To the south of the great Parana there is the river Mendoza, and the Rio de los Sauzes, or river of Willows; followed in the furthest south by the Chulclau and the Gallegos, the last entering the Pacific opposite to the Malouin or Falkland islands.

Mountains.—The mountains of South America constitute some of the grandest objects in natural geography, being not only the most lofty on the face of the globe, but intermixed with volcanoes of the most sublime and terrific description. The extent is also prodigious, the Andes stretching in one line

from the capes of Isidro and Pilares, in the southern extremity of the continent, to the west side of the gulf of Darien, a space of not less than 4600 miles, as they generally follow the windings of the coast, at the medial distance of about 100 miles. The chief summits are near the equator, not far from the city of Quito.

The highest part of the American alps is Chimborazo, about 100 miles south of Quito. It is computed to be 20,280 feet above the level of the sea. The next in height is supposed to be the volcano called Cotopasha, estimated at about 18,600 feet, about twenty-five miles to the south-east of Quito.—Humboldt, a French naturalist, says there are three remarkable chains of mountains, which proceed from west to east, parallel to the equator. Several branches extend northward from the great chain in the high plain of Quito. The greatest height in the province of St. Marta is 14,000 feet. Several mountains of this chain are perhaps equal in height to Mont Blanc; perpetually covered with snow, and often pouring from their sides streams of boiling sulphureous water: and the highest peaks are solitary amidst mountains of little height. That of Merida is near the plain of Caracas, which is only 260 feet above the sea. The second chain divides the waters that fall into the Esquibo and Orinoco; and is inhabited by a number of savage tribes, little or not at all known in Europe. The third chain unites the Andes of Peru and Chili with the mountains of Brazil and Paraguay.

Between these three great ridges are, according to our author, three immense vallies; that of Orinoco, that of the river of Amazons, and that of the Pampas of Buenos Ayres, from 19 to 52 deg. south lat., all opening to the east, but shut on the west by the Andes. The middle valley, or that of the Amazons, is covered with forests so thick, that the rivers alone form roads; while those of Orinoco and Pampas are savannas, or grassy plains, with a few scattered palms; and so level, that sometimes for 800 square leagues there is no inequality above eight or ten inches in height.

On reviewing the grand physical features of the New World, its fine adaptation for commercial intercourse is very striking.

'The gulf of Mexico,' says Dr. Robertson, 'which flows in between North and South America, may be considered as a Mediterranean sea, which opens a maritime commerce with all the fertile countries by which it is encircled. The islands scattered in it are inferior only to those in the Indian archipelago, in number, in magnitude, and in value. As we stretch along the northern division of the American hemisphere, the bay of Chesapeake presents a spacious inlet, which conducts the navigator far into the interior parts of provinces no less fertile than extensive; and if ever the progress of culture and population shall mitigate the extreme rigour of the climate in the more northern districts of America, Hudson's bay may become as subservient to commercial intercourse in that quarter of the globe, as the Baltic is in Europe. The other great portion of the New World is encompassed on every side by the sea, except one narrow neck, which separates the Atlantic from the Pacific ocean; and though it be not opened by spacious bays or arms of the sea, its interior parts are rendered accessible by a number of large rivers, fed by so many auxiliary streams, flowing in such various directions, that, almost without any aid from the hand of industry and art, an inland navigation may be carried on through all the provinces from the river de la Plata to the gulf of Paria. Nor is this bounty of nature confined to the southern division of America; its northern continent abounds no less in rivers which are navigable almost to their sources, and by its immense chain of lakes provision is made for an inland communication, more extensive and commodious than in any quarter of the globe. The countries stretching from the gulf of Darien on one side, to that of California on the other, which form the chain that binds the two parts of the American continent together, are not destitute of peculiar advantages. Their coast on one side is washed by the Atlantic ocean, on the other by the Pacific. Some of their rivers flow into the former, some into the latter, and secure to them all the commercial benefits that may result from a communication with both.'

DISCOVERY AND ANCIENT POPULATION OF AMERICA.

America was first discovered by the Norwegians in the year 982, when these adventurers visited Greenland, which, it is now universally admitted, forms a part of this grand division of the earth. This was followed, in the year 1003, by the discovery of Vinland, which seems to have been a part of Labrador, or Newfoundland. The colony of Vinland was soon destroyed by intestine divisions; but that in Greenland continued to flourish till maritime intercourse was impeded by the encroaching shoals of arctic ice. Though the first European colonies in America were thus lost, the Danes asserted their right by settlements on the western coast, called New Greenland, to distinguish it from the original colony on the eastern shores, or what is called Old Greenland.

After this there seems a long pause, for no further discovery in America has hitherto been traced, by the utmost exertion of learned research, till the time of Colon. But the Portuguese discoveries in the fifteenth century had gradually enlarged knowledge and encouraged enterprise. The Canary islands appear to have been faintly known to the Spaniards about the middle of the fourteenth century: and the Normans of France, in the usual enterprising spirit of their progenitors, had made piratical excursions as far as these isles. Their discovery, so far to the west, proved an important motive to the further researches of Colon; who was also instigated by the numerous Portuguese discoveries in Africa, where the cape of Good Hope had been seen by Diaz in 1486.

Colon, or, as he is usually called, *Columbus*, sailed from Spain in quest of the New World on Friday the 3d day of August, 1492. On the 1st of October he was, by his reckoning, 770 leagues west of the Canaries. His men began to mutiny, and he was forced to promise to return in three days, if land did not appear. Fortunate presages soon arose, as land birds, a cane newly cut, a carved piece of wood, and the branch of a tree with fresh red berries. These and other symptoms

induced Colon to order the ships to lie to in the evening of the 11th of October, in the certainty of seeing land on the approach of daylight. The night was passed in gazing expectation; and a light having been observed in motion, the cry of *land! land!* resounded from the headmost ship. With the dawn of Friday, October 12th, a beautiful isle appeared, two leagues to the north. *Te Deum* was sung with shouts of exultation, and every mark of gratitude and veneration to the admiral. Colon was the first who landed, to the great astonishment of the natives, who regarded their visitors as children of the sun, the astonishment on both sides being indescribable. The first discovery was one of the group called the Bahama isles, being the Cat island of our mariners.

In his second voyage he discovered several of the Caribbee islands; and in his third voyage he fell in with an island which he called Trinidad, and viewed the estuary of the Orinoco. He then returned to Hispaniola, or St. Domingo; and in October, 1500, was sent back to Spain in chains!

When Colon arrived at the West Indies, he conceived that he was in the neighbourhood of Japan; and the name of India was imposed in a new and improper sense. The discovery of Vinland could scarcely have been known to him; and that of Greenland was so remote, that there was no room for a suggestion that this region formed a part of a prodigious continent. As to the Atlantis of Plato, and the ridiculous Welsh tale of Madoc, which Southey has succeeded in rendering interesting, they cannot deprive Colon of one atom of his glory.

Ojeda, an officer who had accompanied Colon in his second voyage, sailed to America with four ships in 1499, but discovered little more than Colon had done. One of the adventurers was Amerigo Vespucci, a Florentine man of science, eminently skilled in navigation, who perhaps acted as chief pilot, an office on such expeditions of high account, and probably only inferior to that of commodore. On his return, Amerigo published the first description that had yet appeared of any part of the new continent: and the caprice of fame has assigned to him an honour above the renown of the greatest conquerors; that of indelibly impressing his name upon this

vast portion of the earth. It is idle to accuse his vanity, which never could have established such a claim: it was, on the contrary, the ignorant and thoughtless gratitude of others, which alone could have imposed the appellation, from regard to the first man of letters who had disclosed this discovery to the general eye, as it seems before to have been concealed by jealousy and intrigue; and the name is, at any rate, better than that of New Holland, or New South Wales, assigned in our own more enlightened times: nor do we esteem it any want of gratitude to Cook that no land has yet received its denomination from his name. As the titles of the three other quarters of the world spread, by mere accident, from small districts, so when the name of America was imposed there was not the most distant idea of the prodigious extent of the territory; and it was only understood that this appellation was given to a large island. If any continent were adjacent, it was understood to be the large land of India.

Cabral, on his voyage to the East Indies in 1500, accidentally discovered Brazil: and in 1513, Vasco Nugnez de Balboa descried, from the mountains of the isthmus, the grand Pacific ocean; and he afterwards waded into the waves, and took possession of it in the name of the Spanish monarch. This discovery seems to have terminated the vain expectation that America formed part of Asia.

It seems unnecessary to trace with minuteness the other epochs of discovery in this quarter. In 1515 the continent was explored as far as Rio de Plata; but even in 1518 little was known concerning its western parts; and twenty-six years had elapsed since the first voyage of Colon, before the existence was rumoured of the empires, or kingdoms, of Mexico and Peru. Hispaniola and Cuba still continued to be the chief seats of the Spanish power. In 1519, Cortez, with eleven small vessels, containing 617 men, proceeded to the conquest of Mexico, which was accomplished in 1521. Magalhaens, at the same time, having explored the Pacific ocean, the discovery of the western coast of America became a necessary consequence. After many reports concerning the riches of Peru, that country was at length visited in 1526 by Pizarro, at the

head of 36 cavalry and 144 infantry: and in ten years that empire was divided among his followers. In 1543 the first Spanish viceroy appeared in Peru.

In NORTH AMERICA the epochs of discovery were more slow.

In 1497, Giovanni Gaboto, a Venetian, called by the English John Cabot, who had received a commission from Henry VII., in the view of tracing a nearer passage to India, discovered Newfoundland, so called by his sailors; and inspected the American shore as far as Virginia: but this land forming merely an obstacle to his wishes, he returned to England.

In 1500, Corte de Real, a Portuguese captain, in search of a north-west passage, discovered Labrador, which he appears to have so called from the seeming industry of the natives.

Florida was discovered by Ponce, a Spanish captain, in 1513.

The powerful kingdom of France had hitherto taken no share in these discoveries; but in 1524, Francis I. sent Verazano, a Florentine, who examined a great part of the coast of North America.

In 1534, Francis I. sending a fleet from St. Maloes, to establish a settlement in North America, Cartier the commander, on the day of St. Lawrence, discovered the great gulf and river to which he gave the name of that saint. In the following year he sailed about 300 leagues up this noble stream to a great cataract, built a fort, and called the country New France.

The Spanish captain Soto proceeded in 1539 from Cuba to complete the conquest of Florida. He travelled northward to about lat. 35 deg., but died in 1542, and was buried on the bank of the river Mississippi.

In 1540, Jean de la Roque, lord of Roberual, a gentleman of Picardy, was appointed lieutenant-general of the new lands of Canada, Hochelaga, and Saguenay, who soon returned without success. Roberual again went in 1543. In 1556 the French also attempted a settlement in Brazil. The industrious and venerable Hakluyt has published the accounts of these French voyages; and though merely a private clergyman, perhaps did more than any potentate to promote a similar spi-

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It will now be proper to consider the progress of the chief settlements.

In 1576, Frobisher, in search of a north-west passage, discovered the straits which retain his name.

In 1578, Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a patent for settling lands in America; and, in 1583, he discovered and took possession of the harbour of St. John and the country to the south, but was lost on his return. The voyage of Drake round the world served to kindle the enthusiasm of the English; and Raleigh obtained a patent similar to that of Gilbert.

Two small vessels dispatched by Raleigh in 1584 unfortunately bent their course to that country now called North Carolina, instead of reaching the noble bays of Chesapeake or Delawar. They touched at an island, probably Ocoke, situated on the inlet into Pamlico sound; and afterwards at Roanoke, near the mouth of Albemarle sound. These vessels returned to England, with two of the natives; and Elizabeth assigned to this region the name of Virginia, an appellation which became laxly applied to the British settlements in North America, till it was confined to a different country from the original Virginia.

In 1585, Raleigh sent a small colony, under the command of Sir Richard Grenville, who settled in the isle of Roanoke, a most incommodious and useless station, whence they returned in 1586. He made other unsuccessful attempts to colonize the country, and afterwards resigned his patent to some merchants, who were contented with a petty traffic. At the death of Elizabeth, 1603, there was not one Englishman settled in America; and the Spaniards and Portuguese alone had formed any establishment on that vast continent.

The venerable Hakluyt, anxious that his countrymen should partake of the benefit of colonies, procured an association of men of rank and talents for this purpose; and a patent was granted by James I., April the 10th, 1606, that monarch being wholly unconscious that he was about to establish an independent and mighty empire. The bay of Chesapeake was

discovered in 1607; and the first lasting settlement was founded at James Town, in modern Virginia. Captain Smith, who afterwards published an account of his voyages, displayed remarkable spirit and enterprise: yet the colony was about to return to England when lord Delawar arrived in 1610; and though he remained only a short time, yet his prudent conduct firmly established the settlement.

The discovery and progress of the other English settlements will be noticed when we come to the description of the different American states. Here it may be sufficient briefly to state the epochs of a few other remarkable discoveries, rather unconnected with these settlements. In 1585, John Davis, an experienced navigator, visited the western coast of Greenland, and explored the narrow sea, absurdly enough called Davis's strait, while it is as wide as the Baltic. On another voyage he proceeded as far north as the island of Disko, and the opposite shores of Greenland, which he named London coast. He also discovered Cumberland strait; and, upon the whole, the three voyages of this navigator are of great consequence. His furthest point of discovery appears to have been Sanderson's Hope, lat. 72 deg., whence turning to the west he was impeded by fields of ice.

In 1607, Hudson made his first voyage; and is said to have proceeded along the eastern coast of Greenland as far as lat. 82 deg.; but probably not above lat. 80 deg., or the furthest extremities of Spitzbergen. On his voyage in 1610, Hudson discovered the straits which bear his name; and that inland sea, approaching the Baltic in size, which has, however, been called Hudson's bay.

In 1616, some public-spirited gentlemen sent captain Bilot to attempt a north-west passage. William Baffin sailed with him as pilot: and this voyage is one of the most singular in the whole circle of geography. He is said to have proceeded in an inland narrow sea as far as 78 deg.; though the accurate and learned Pinkerton doubts the fact. Some curious discoveries have, however, been just made in the arctic seas by captain Ross, who fell in with a party of Indians that were so ignorant of the world, and the existence of other men,

as to suppose that the English had descended from the moon!

Mr. Hearne, under the direction of the Hudson's bay company, in an expedition which lasted from the 7th of December, 1770, to the 30th of June, 1772, proceeded from Prince of Wales's fort, on the Churchill river, in lat. 58 deg. 47½ min. north, and long. 94 deg. 7½ min. west of Greenwich, to the mouth of the Copper-mine river, which, according to some accounts, is in lat. 72 deg. north, and long. 119 deg. west from Greenwich; but is laid down by others in lat. 69 deg. north, and long. 112 deg. west from Greenwich. But the Hudson's bay company, acting upon a contracted policy, did not render all those services to the subject of American geography which might have been expected. The enterprising spirit, however, of certain Canadian traders, afterwards united under the name of the North-west company, amply supplied the deficiency. Prior to the year 1789, they had extended their discoveries and establishments along the numerous lakes and rivers situated north of that high tract of country which divides the Mississippi and Missouri waters from those which run towards the north and east, to within a short distance of the Rocky mountains.

In the summer of the year 1789, Mr. M'Kenzie made a voyage from fort Chipewyan, on the lake of the Hills, in lat. 58 deg. 40 min. north, and long. 110 deg. 30 min. west from Greenwich, by the way of the Hare river, Hare lake, and a river by which this lake discharges its waters, since called M'Kenzie's river, to the mouth of that river, where it falls into the North sea, in lat. 69 deg. 14 min. north, and long. 135 deg. west from Greenwich.

Mr. M'Kenzie again, in the year 1793, penetrated from an establishment on the Peace river, in lat. 56 deg. 49 min. north; and long. 117 deg. 35 min. west from Greenwich, to the Pacific ocean, in lat. 52 deg. 24 min. north, and long. 128 deg. 2 min. west from Greenwich.

By the discoveries above alluded to, and those occasionally made during the rapid settlement of the country and the progress of enterprise, the principal divisions of this northern con-

tinent have been explored and become known. The unknown and unexplored countries (except so far as the surveys made by navigators of the coast of the Pacific ocean, and the imperfect accounts of the travellers who have ascended the Missouri, have furnished information) comprehend the tract enclosed by this line, containing, in breadth, 1000 miles, and in length about 1800 miles in a direct line; and, by the way of the Missouri and Columbia rivers, nearly twice that distance.

In the year 1804, the American government sent out a corps of discovery under the command of captains Lewis and Clarke, of the army of the United States. They passed from the mouth of the Missouri, through the interior parts of North America, to the Pacific ocean, and have materially illustrated the geography of that river. Major Pike, in 1805, successfully explored the course of the Mississippi, and in a second expedition, penetrated the interior of Louisiana, surveying the whole of those majestic waters which rise in the rocky mountains of that district, and run westward into the Missouri and Mississippi. The recent and splendid contributions of M. Humboldt to our scientific information respecting the equinoctial regions can hardly be ranked with the expeditions of *discovery* above mentioned; but we shall not fail to avail ourselves of them in the progress of this work.

Inhabitants.—The next topic which occurs is the ancient population; but our knowledge of the American languages is still so imperfect, that the subject is involved in great doubts. None of the native nations of America displays the smallest trace of the oblique eyes, and other remarkable features, by which the inhabitants of eastern Asia are distinguished. Far from this, Pallas, Lesseps, Tooke, and other skilful enquirers, have pronounced that the Techuks and Koriaks undoubtedly proceeded from America, as they have not one Asiatic lineament.

It is to be regretted that, neither in North nor South America, have the languages been compared, analysed, and classed, as has been done with regard to the numerous tribes subject to Russia and China. Hence, instead of solid knowledge, we are overwhelmed with petty distinctions, and names without

ideas. Upon one point only do investigators seem to be agreed, that the friendly and helpless people in the furthest north, called Esquimaux, are the same race with the Samioids of Asia, and Laplanders of Europe. These, with the Peruvians and Mexicans, Dr. Forster chuses to consider as strangers who have settled in America.

'The curious question concerning the population of America,' says Pinkerton, 'can only be duly examined after the various dialects have been compared with those of Africa; for to those of Europe or Asia they certainly bear no resemblance. To trace the population from the north of Asia, not to mention the positive contradiction of facts, would be an unnecessary restriction of the subject, as the progeny of so cold a latitude is ever found rare, feeble, and unenterprising; while if we consider the proximity of Africa, and the many copper coloured nations which are there to be found, there will be little reason to hesitate concerning the progress of the Africans to America, as well as to New Holland. This resource alone remains; for it has already been seen that the language of the Malays, who extended themselves so far to the east of Asia, has no connexion with that of the Americans. Amidst the wondrous dreams of antiquaries, it is surprising that none has attempted to prove that the Mexicans and Peruvians were descendants of the Carthaginians, who fled to the Hesperides in their abhorrence of the Roman yoke.'

Dr. Robertson has enumerated several strong reasons which render it highly probable that America was not peopled from any civilised part of the ancient continent. He supposes that the Esquimaux proceeded from the north-west of Europe, and the other inhabitants of America from the north-east of Europe. This supposition is corroborated by the ingenious captain Burney, who considers Beering's strait not as the separation of two great continents, but merely as the entrance to a vast bay. Mr. Bailey, the astronomer, who, with captain Burney, accompanied the celebrated Cook in his voyage of discovery northward, also conceives that Beering's straits is an inland sea. This opinion of the actual junction of the Old and New World simplifies the question of how the latter was peopled;

unless it be found, on investigating the American languages, that they have, as Mr. Pinkerton conjectures, originated in Africa.

The present population of this immense continent does not probably exceed *thirty-six millions*; by which calculation North America will contain *twenty millions*, and South America *sixteen millions*.

Having exhibited all the great features of American geography, it now remains to turn our attention to that most important portion of the North American continent called the UNION. Observations which cannot with propriety be introduced in a *General View*, will be inserted when we come to treat of the respective states and territories that compose this colossal empire,

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DESCRIPTION

OF THE

PHYSICAL FEATURES,

CLIMATE, AND NATURAL PRODUCTIONS

OF THE

UNITED STATES.

Boundaries. IN the treaty of peace, concluded in 1783, the limits of the United States are thus defined:—
'And that all disputes which might arise in future on the subject of the boundaries of the said United States may be prevented, it is hereby agreed and declared, that the following are and shall be their boundaries, viz. From the north-west angle of Nova Scotia, viz. That angle which is formed by a line drawn due north from the source of St. Croix river to the highlands, along the said highlands, which divide those rivers that empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic ocean, to the north-westernmost head of Connecticut river; thence down along the middle of that river to the forty-fifth degree of north latitude; from thence by a line due west on said latitude, until it strikes the river Iroquois or Cataraquy; thence along the middle of the said river into lake Ontario, through the middle of said lake, until it strikes the communication by water between that lake and lake Erie; thence along the middle of said communication into lake Erie, through the middle of said lake, until it arrives at the water communication between that lake and lake Huron; thence through the middle of said lake to the water

communication between that lake and lake Superior; thence through lake Superior northward of the isles Royal and Philipeaux to the Long lake; thence through the middle of said Long lake, and the water communication between it and the lake of the Woods to the said lake of the Woods; thence through the said lake to the most north-western point thereof, and from thence, on a due west course, to the river Mississippi; thence by a line to be drawn along the middle of said river Mississippi, until it shall intersect the northernmost part of the thirty-first degree of north latitude. South, by a line to be drawn due east from the determination of the line last mentioned, in the latitude of thirty-one degrees north of the equator, to the middle of the river Apalachicola, or Catahouche; thence along the middle thereof to its junction with the Flint river; thence straight to the head of St. Mary's river; and thence down along the middle of St. Mary's river to the Atlantic ocean. East, by a line to be drawn along the middle of the river St. Croix, from its mouth in the bay of Fundy to its source; and from its source directly north, to the aforesaid highlands, which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic ocean from those which fall into the river St. Lawrence, comprehending all islands within twenty leagues of any part of the shores of the United States, and lying between lines to be drawn due east from the points where the aforesaid boundaries between Nova Scotia on the one part, and East Florida on the other, shall respectively touch the bay of Fundy and the Atlantic ocean, excepting such isles as now are, or heretofore have been, within the limits of the said province of Nova Scotia.

Extent.—The United States are situated between 25 deg. 50 min. and 49 deg. 37 min. north lat., and between 10 deg. east and 48 deg. 20 min. west long. from Washington. The most northern part is bounded by a line running due west from the north-west corner of the lake of the Woods, and the southern extremity is the outlet of the Rio del Norte. The eastern extremity is the Great Menan island, on the coast of Maine; and the western extremity is cape Flattery, north of Columbia river, on the Pacific ocean. Their greatest extent, from north to south, is 1700 miles, and from east to west, 2700.

Their surface covers more than 2,500,000 square miles, or 1,600,000,000 acres.

In 1788, the number of square acres in the United States amounted to 283,800,000, of which only about 1,250,000 were cultivated; and in 1808 to 600,000,000, of which about 2,500,000 were in a high state of cultivation. At the present time, the American writers estimate them at the enormous increase of 1,600,000,000 acres. Of this it can only be remarked, that the accession of Louisiana and the lands cleared westward hardly account for so vast an addition of territory.

Divisions.—There appear to be now nineteen United States of North America, including Indiana, and six Territorial Governments, so called, as not being yet regularly organized into states, but under the general government of the Union; distributed into the following four grand divisions;

I. The Northern, New England, or Eastern States.

Vermont,		the District of Maine;
New Hampshire,		Rhode Island,
Massachusetts, including		Connecticut.

II. The Middle States.

New York,		Delaware,
New Jersey,		Ohio,
Pennsylvania,		Indiana.

III. The Southern States.

Maryland,		South Carolina,
Virginia,		Georgia,
Kentucky,		Tennessee,
North Carolina,		Louisiana.

IV. Territorial Governments.

District of Columbia,		Illinois Territory,
Mississippi Territory,		Michigan ditto,
Missouri ditto,		North-west ditto.

The following table will shew the extent of territory within the Union, and the increase of population which has taken place during twenty-seven recent years.

States.	Square Miles.	Number of Inhabitants.	
		1790.	1817.
Vermont - -	10,000	85,539	296,450
New Hampshire	9,800	141,885	302,733
Maine - -	31,750	96,540	311,647
Massachusetts }	8,500	378,787	564,392
Rhode Island -	1,700	68,825	98,721
Connecticut -	4,500	237,946	349,568
New York - -	54,000	340,120	1,486,739
New Jersey -	6,500	184,139	345,822
Pennsylvania -	48,700	484,373	986,494
Delaware - -	1,800	59,094	108,334
Maryland - -	14,000	319,728	502,710
Virginia - -	75,000	747,610	1,347,496
Kentucky - }	52,000	73,677	683,753
North Carolina -	49,000	393,751	701,224
South Carolina -	32,700	240,073	564,785
Georgia - -	64,000	82,548	408,567
Western Territories	- -	35,691	- - -
District of Columbia	100	- - -	37,892
Tennessee - -	63,000	- - -	489,624
Ohio - -	45,000	- - -	394,752
Louisiana - -	49,000	- - -	108,923
Indiana - -	38,000	- - -	86,734
Mississippi -	55,000	- - -	104,550
Illinois Territory	66,000	- - -	39,000
Michigan ditto	47,500	- - -	9,743
Missouri ditto	1,987,000	- - -	68,794
Total -	2,814,550	3,929,336	10,405,547

In estimating the extent of such immense regions, accuracy is not attainable; but perhaps the above calculation may not be far from the truth. However, after making every reasonable deduction, the survey before us offers matter for reflections

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1817.	
39	296,450
85	302,733
40	318,647
87	564,392
25	98,721
46	349,568
20	1,486,739
39	345,822
73	986,494
94	108,334
28	502,710
10	1,347,496
77	683,753
51	701,224
73	564,785
48	408,567
91	-
-	37,892
-	489,624
-	394,752
-	108,922
-	86,734
-	104,550
-	39,000
-	9,743
-	68,794
36	10,405,547

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the most consolatory and impressive. England contains one hundred and eighty persons to a square mile; and when the territories at present comprehended in the Union shall become equally populous, the population will amount to *five hundred millions*! while few writers on Statistics have ventured to estimate the inhabitants of Europe at more than one hundred and seventy millions. This shews the futility of the European royal associations for the purpose of impeding the march of knowledge, and of restoring the age of ignorance and superstition. The people of the Western Hemisphere will soon be qualified, whatever may happen in the Old World, to support and defend the ark of science and liberty.

Climate.—The climate of the United territories, as already mentioned, is chiefly remarkable for sudden transitions from heat to cold, and the contrary. The wind from the north-east is violently cold, as it passes a wide expanse of the frozen continent. In the plains on the east of the Apalachian chain the summer heats are immoderate; and in some places even ice will not preserve poultry or fish from putrefaction. Towards the mountains the climate is salutary, even in the southern states, as is evinced by the bloom of the damsels in the back settlements of Virginia. In the northern states the winter is longer and more severe than in England, but the summer heat more intense. A north-east wind commonly attends rain, while on the west side of the Apalachian mountains a south-west has that effect. In Georgia the winter is very mild, snow being seldom seen, and the east wind is there the warmest.

This excessive heat of the plains must be regarded as one cause of that fatal pestilential malady called the yellow fever, which first appeared at Philadelphia in 1793, and has since too frequently repeated its ravages in various cities of the commonwealth. Several medical men have treated this subject with considerable care and ability, but do not seem to have examined whether any similar disease was before known on the continent, and what method of cure was practised. Alzate, in his fugitive remarks on the natural history of Mexico, has mentioned an epidemical distemper, called in the Mexican language *matlazahuatl*; but at Vera Cruz, Carthagena, and other

places, known by the name of the black vomit, which is the chief scourge of the kingdom of Mexico. In 1736 and 1737 it swept away above one-third of the inhabitants of the capital; and in 1761 and 1762 it almost depopulated the kingdom. Alzate thinks that this disorder proceeds from the bile mixing with the blood, the patient often bleeding at the nose and mouth; and a relapse is extremely dangerous. He dissuades purgatives and bleeding, as when used for other disorders they superinduce the *matlazahuatl*, which in Mexico always begun among the Indians, and was chiefly confined to them. May not this disorder be as much allied with the yellow fever as the black and yellow jaundice? The Spanish physicians might at any rate be consulted, as they have long been accustomed to the American maladies; and it is hoped that this hint may not be unsubserving to the interests of humanity.

Seasons.—The seasons in the United States generally correspond with those in Europe, but not with the equality to be expected on a continent; as, even during the summer heats, single days will occur which require the warmth of a fire. The latitude of Labrador corresponds with that of Stockholm, and that of Canada with France; but what a wide difference in the temperature! Even the estuary of the Delaware is generally frozen for six weeks every winter. Nor does the western coast of North America seem warmer than the eastern. The numerous forests, and wide expanses of fresh water, perhaps contribute to this comparative coldness of the climate, which may gradually yield to the progress of population and industry. In fact, a favourable change in the climate is already very perceptible. In the oldest cultivated parts of the country, the cold in winter has sensibly decreased, the snow has diminished, and the frosts are neither so severe nor of so long a continuance as formerly.

Face of the Country.—The face of these extensive territories is not so minutely diversified as might have been expected, the features of nature being here on a larger and more uniform scale than in Europe. Nor are there any scenes of classical or historical reminiscence, which transport the mind to remote centuries, and impart a crowd of relative ideas. The abun-

dance of timber, and the diversity of the foliage, contribute greatly to enrich the landscape; but it is here reputed a weed, and the planter seldom spares trees near his habitation, as the roots having no great room to spread or penetrate, they would be dangerous during a violent wind. 'What a beautiful country, not disgraced by a single tree,' is an idea purely American. The landscape is less ennobled by lofty mountains than by rivers of great magnitude; and is frequently injured by the barren aspect of large fields, which have been exhausted by the culture of tobacco, and which scarcely produce a weed or a pile of grass. The northern provinces, called New England, are generally hilly, as they approach the skirts of the Apalachian chain, which has, by no unfit similitude, been called the spine of the United territory. The vales in these northern regions are thickly clothed with wood, and often pervaded by considerable rivers; and many romantic cascades are formed by rivulets falling from the rocks, while towards the shore the land is level and sandy. In Virginia, a central state, the Blue mountains, and other ridges of the Apalachian, add great charms and variety to the prospect, which is further enlivened by many beautiful plants and birds, particularly the humming bird, sucking the honey of various flowers, and rapidly glancing in the sun its indescribable hues of green, purple, and gold. Here a plain from 150 to 200 miles in breadth, reaching from the mountains to the sea, is studded with the villas of rich proprietors, the ancient hospitable country gentlemen of the United States. Similar levels appear in the Carolinas and Georgia. Beyond the Apalachian ridges extends another rich plain of amazing size, pervaded by the muddy waves of the Mississippi, which does not appear to be table land, but on nearly the same level with the eastern plain. In Kentucky the surface is agreeably waved with gentle swells, reposing on a vast bed of limestone; and a track of about twenty miles along the Ohio is broken into small hills and narrow vales.

Soil.—The soil, though of various descriptions, is generally fertile, often, on the east of the Blue mountains, a rich brown loamy earth, sometimes a yellowish clay, which becomes more and more sandy towards the sea. Sometimes there are consi-

derable marshes, and what are called salt meadows, and spots called barrens, which, even in the original forests, are found to be bare of trees for a considerable space. On the west of the Appalachian chain the soil is also generally excellent; and in Kentucky some spots are deemed too rich for wheat, but the product may amount to sixty bushels an acre: and about six feet below the surface there is commonly a bed of limestone. The vales in the northern states are also very productive.

Agriculture.—In agriculture the Americans are well skilled, and are eager to adopt the advantages of English experience. It is computed that three-fourths of the inhabitants of the United States are employed in agriculture. This free and vigorous yeomanry may well be regarded as the chief glory of any state; and commerce will impart sufficient opulence to enable them to promote every possible improvement. In the year 1816, the value of agricultural products exported amounted to the sum of *fifty-three millions, three hundred and fifty-four thousand* dollars. But this subject must be reserved until we come to treat of the present state and resources of the UNION, when it will receive an attention commensurate with its vast importance.

Rivers.—The chief rivers in the United States have already been described in the brief general view of North America; but a few additional particulars may be here noticed, and an account given of those of a more confined course, which particularly belong to the United territory.

The *Mississippi* generally affords fifteen feet of water, from the mouth of the Missouri to that of the Ohio; but, in time of flushes, a first-rate man-of-war may descend with safety. The mean velocity of its current may be computed to be four miles an hour. Its breadth is various, from one and a half to two miles: its mouth is divided into several channels, which continually change their direction and depth. The *Arkansaw*, which runs into this mighty river, has been recently explored by major Pike, who computes its course, from its junction with the Mississippi, about north lat. 34 deg. 10 min., to the mountains, at 1981 miles, and thence to its source, 192 additional miles. It receives several rivers, navigable for upwards of 100 miles.

The *Missouri*, with its eastern branches, waters five-eighths of the United States. It rises in the Rocky mountains to the north-west of Louisiana, in north lat. 45 deg. 24 min., and reckoning from its most extreme branch, the Jefferson, joins the Mississippi after a course of above 3000 miles, in west long. 90 deg. and north lat. 39 deg., when, forming one mighty stream, they pursue their way conjointly to the gulf of Mexico.

The *Ohio*, less sublime and majestic in its course than those already noticed, is also less interrupted in its navigation. Its general breadth is about 600 yards; but it varies from 300 in the narrowest to 1200 in the widest part. The course of the Ohio, from fort Pitt to its junction with the Mississippi, following all its windings, is, by Morse and other American geographers, computed at 1188 miles. This river commences at the junction of the Alleghany and Monongehala rivers. It has been described as, beyond competition, the most beautiful river in the world: its meandering course through an immense region of forests; its elegant banks, which afford innumerable delightful situations for cities, villages, and improved farms; with its various other advantages, well entitle it to the name originally given it by the French of '*La belle Riviere.*' Since that period, the Ohio has greatly improved both in beauty and utility. The immense forests which once lined its banks have gradually receded; cultivation smiles along its borders; numerous villages and towns decorate its shores; and it is not extravagant to suppose that the time is not far distant when its entire margin will form one continued series of villages and towns. Vast tracts of fine country have communication with the Ohio, by means of its tributary navigable waters; extraordinary fertility, marks the river bottoms; and the superior excellence of its navigation has made it the channel through which the various productions of the most extensive and fertile parts of the United States are already sent to market. At its commencement at Pittsfort, or Pittsburg, it takes a north-west course for about twenty-five miles; then turns gradually to west-south-west; and having pursued that course for about 500 miles, winds to the south-west for nearly 160 miles; then turns to the west for about 260 miles more; thence south-west

for 160, and empties itself into the Mississippi in a south direction, nearly 1200 miles below Pittsburg. In times of high freshes, and during the flow of ice and snow from the Alleghany and other mountains, vessels of almost any tonnage may descend this river: it is never so low but that it may be navigated by canoes, and other light craft, not drawing more than twelve inches water. The highest floods are in spring, when the river rises forty-five feet; the lowest are in summer, when it sinks to twelve inches at the bars, ripples, and shoals, where waggons, carts, &c. frequently pass over.

The largest stream that flows into the Ohio is the *Tennessee* river, whose remotest sources are in Virginia, north lat. 37 deg. 10 min. It runs about 1000 English miles south and south-south-west, receiving considerable accessions of minor waters on each side, and then turning circuitously northward, blends itself with the Ohio at about 60 miles from the mouth of that river. It is navigable for vessels of large burden to the distance of 250 miles from its junction with the Ohio.

The *Alleghany* river rises in Pennsylvania, on the western side of the Alleghany mountains; and after running about 200 miles in a south-west direction, meets the Monongehala at Pittsburg, and the united streams now form the Ohio. In this course it is increased by many tributary streams. Few rivers exceed the Alleghany for clearness of water and rapidity of current. It seldom fails to mark its course across the mouth of the Monongehala, in the highest freshes or floods, the water of the latter being very muddy, that of the former very clear. In high floods, the junction of these rivers presents a pleasing view; the Monongehala flowing sometimes full of ice, the Alleghany transparent and free. Its banks are delightfully interspersed with cultivated farms and increasing towns. In a course of 80 miles, however, from a place called Envalt's Defeat to Freeport, it is full of eddies, rapids, rocks, and other dangers, to avoid which requires the utmost attention. In some of the ripples the water runs at the rate of ten miles an hour; and a boat will go at the rate of twelve miles, without any other assistance than the steering oar. The waters of this river are recommended by the medical practitioners of Pitts-

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burg, both for the purposes of bathing and of drinking; but the peculiar medicinal qualities of the Alleghany water are, perhaps, more to be attributed to the faith of those who use it, than to any inherent character of superior salubrity.

The *Monongehala* river rises at the foot of the Laurel mountain, in Virginia; thence, through various meanderings, passes into Pennsylvania, receiving in its course the Cheat and Youghougheny rivers, and many smaller streams. It has already been stated that this river unites with the Alleghany at Pittsburg. Twelve or fifteen miles from its mouth, it is about 200 yards wide, and is navigable for boats and small craft, particularly in autumn and spring, when it is generally covered with what are called trading and family boats; the former loaded with flour, cider, whiskey, apples, and various kinds of wrought materials; the latter carrying furniture, domestic utensils, and agricultural instruments, destined for Kentucky and New Orleans.

Another principal river of North America, and the most considerable one in the eastern states, is the *Connecticut*. It rises in the highlands to the south of New Brunswick, in west long. 72 deg. and north lat. 45 deg. 10 min. After a lingering course of eight or ten miles, it has four separate falls; and turning west, keeps close under the hills which form the northern boundary of the vale through which it runs. The Amonoosack and Israel rivers, two principal branches of the Connecticut, fall into it from the east, between the latitudes 44 and 45 deg. Between the towns of Walpole on the east, and Westminster on the west side of the river, are the Great falls. The whole river, compressed between two rocks, scarcely thirty feet asunder, shoots with amazing rapidity into a broad basin below. Over these falls, a bridge, 160 feet in length, was built in 1784, under which the highest floods may pass without difficulty. This is the first bridge that was erected over this noble river. Above Deerfield, in Massachusetts, it receives Deerfield river from the west, and Miller's river from the east; after which it turns westerly, in a sinuous course, to Fighting falls, and a little after tumbles over Deerfield falls, which are impassable by boats. At Windsor, in this state, it

receives Farmington river from the west; and at Hartford meets the tide. From Hartford it passes on in a crooked course, until it falls into Long island sound, between Saybrook and Lyme. The length of this river, in a straight line, is nearly 300 miles. It is from 80 to 100 rods wide, 130 miles from its mouth, where there is a bar of sand, which considerably obstructs its navigation. On this beautiful river, whose banks are peopled almost, if not now entirely, to its source, stand numerous well-built towns.

Charles River has its sources, five or six in number, in the state of Massachusetts, on the south-east side of Hopkinton and Holliston ridge. The main stream runs north-east, then north and north-easterly, round this ridge, until it mingles with Mother-brook. The river thus formed runs westward, passing over numerous romantic falls. Bending to the north-east and east, through Watertown and Cambridge, and passing into Boston harbour, it mingles with the waters of the Mystic river at the point of the peninsula of Charlestown. It is navigable for boats to Watertown, seven miles.

Taunton River rises in the Blue mountains, forming the principal drain of the country lying east of those mountains. Its course is about 50 miles from north-east to south-west; and is navigable for vessels to Taunton. It finally empties into Narragauset bay, at Tiverton. The rivers *Concord*, *Mystic*, *Medford*, *Ipswich*, and many others, contribute to the beauty and commercial interests of Massachusetts.

To the state of New York belongs the noble stream called *Hudson River*, and frequently *North River*. It rises in a mountainous country, between the lakes Ontario and Champlain. In its course, south-easterly, it approaches within six or eight miles of lake George; then, after a short course east, turns southerly, and receives the Sacondago from the south-west, within a few miles of the Mohawk river. The course of the river thence to New York, where it empties itself into York bay, is almost uniformly south. Its whole length is about 250 miles.

The banks of Hudson, or North river, especially on the western side, as far as the highlands extend, are chiefly rocky

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cliffs. The passage through the highlands, which is sixteen or eighteen miles, affords a wild romantic scene. In this narrow pass, on each side of which the mountains tower to a great height, the wind, if there be any, is collected and compressed, and blows continually as through a bellows: vessels, in passing through it, are often compelled to lower their sails. The bed of this river, which is deep and smooth to an astonishing distance, through a hilly, rocky country, and even through ridges of some of the highest mountains of the United States, must undoubtedly have been produced by some mighty convulsion of nature. The tide flows a few miles above Albany; to which place it is navigable for sloops of eighty tons, and for ships to Hudson. About 60 miles above New York the water becomes fresh, and is stored with fish of various kinds. The advantages which this river affords to the inland trade of the state, and those which, by means of the lakes, it renders to the trade with Canada, are very great. These have been considerably enhanced since the invention of steam-boats, of which there are several, of amazing size, on this river, on which that memorable invention was first successfully tried, in the year 1807. Some of them, though equal in length to a ship of the line, travel through the Narrows, and along the whole course of this river from New York to Albany, at the rate of seven or eight miles an hour, against wind and tide. The distance, it is said, has been run down the stream in seventeen hours: formerly an uncertain voyage of three or four days, or even a week or two, according to the state of the winds and tides. The average time is twenty-four hours. Ferry-boats, propelled by steam, and so constructed that carriages drive in and out at pleasure, may be observed at every large town on this river. These convenient vehicles are likely to supersede the use of bridges on navigable waters. They are, in fact, a sort of flying-bridge, with this advantage over the numerous and costly structures of that kind which now span the broad surface of the Susquehannah, in the interior of Pennsylvania—they do not require such expensive repairs; they may be secured from the effects of sudden floods; and, what is of far more importance, they present no obstruction to navigation.

The growing population of the fertile lands upon the northern branches of the Hudson must annually increase the amazing wealth that is conveyed by its waters to New York. In almost every point of view, this river is one of the greatest utility in the United States.

The *Onondago* river rises in a lake of the same name, and, running westerly, falls into lake Ontario, at Oswego. With the exception of a fall, which occasions a portage of twenty yards, this river is navigable for boats from its mouth to the head of the lake; thence batteaux go up Wood creek, almost to fort Stanwix, whence there is a portage of a mile to Mohawk river. Towards the head waters of this river salmon are caught in great quantities.

The *Mohawk* river rises to the northward of fort Stanwix, about eight miles from Sable river, a water of lake Ontario, and runs southerly 20 miles to the fort; then eastward 110 miles, and, after receiving many tributary streams, falls into North river, by three mouths, opposite to the cities of Lansingburg and Troy, from seven to ten miles north of Albany. This is a very fine river, and is navigable for boats nearly the whole of its course. Its banks were formerly thickly settled with Indians, but now cultivation and civilization have rendered its course a busy scene of mercantile pursuit and increasing population.

The *Delaware*, the *Susquehanna*, *Tyoga*, *Seneca*, *Genesee*, and the north-east branch of the *Alleghany* river, all belong to the state of New York; and such is the intersection of the whole state, by the various branches of these and other rivers, that there are few places, throughout its whole extent, that are more than fifteen or twenty miles from a navigable stream.

The river *Savannah* divides the state of Georgia from South Carolina, and pursues a course nearly from north-west to south-east. The freshes of this river will sometimes rise from thirty to forty feet perpendicular above the actual level of the stream.

The *New Piscataqua*, having four extensive branches, all of them navigable for small vessels, furnishes the commencement of a line, which, drawn from its northern head, until it

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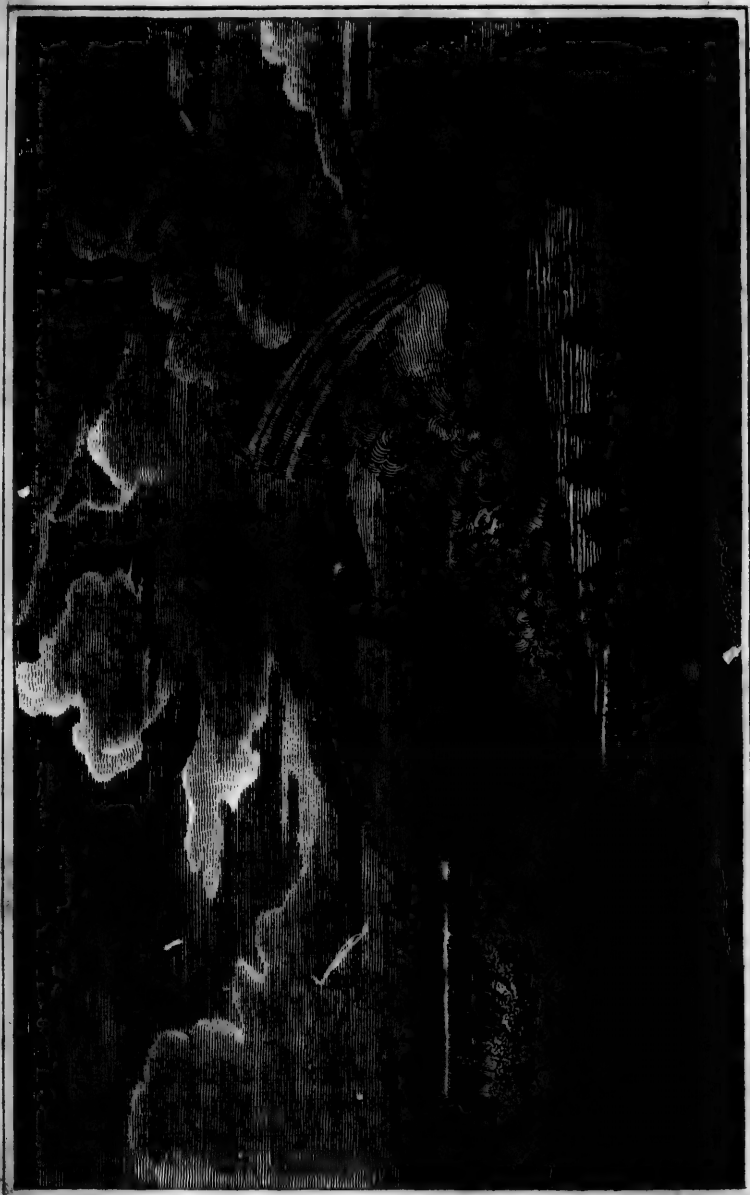
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GENERAL VIEW OF THE FALLS OF NIAGARA.

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meets the boundary of the province of Quebec, divides New Hampshire from the province of Maine. The *Merrimak*, remarkable for two considerable falls, Amaskaog and Pantucket, bears that name from its mouth to the confluence of the Pernigewasset and Winipisikee rivers, which unite in about lat. 43 deg. 30 min. The first of these rivers forms the only port of New Hampshire. Great Bay spreads out from Piscataqua river, between Portsmouth and Exeter.

Columbia River is the principal stream which has been explored on the north-west coast of America. It is called, by the Indians, Tacoutche-Tesse, and is formed by innumerable streams from the Rocky mountains, rising between the 43d and 53d deg. of north lat. The principal stream has a course of 700 British miles to the ocean, which it enters at north lat. 46 deg.

Cataracts.—Some of the chief wonders of this western hemisphere are found in its cataracts, or falls, which do not consist of single streams precipitated from hill to vale in picturesque beauty, as in the Alps, but of whole rivers tossed from broken mountains into immense basins below. The first in magnitude are

The *Cataracts of Niagara*, between the lakes Erie and Ontario, distant about eighteen miles from the town of Niagara, and situate upon a river of the same name. These falls may be regarded as presenting one of the most interesting of all the phenomena in the natural world. 'At Queenston,' says lieutenant Hall, 'seven miles from the falls, their sound, united with the rushing of the river, is distinctly heard. At the distance of about a mile, a white cloud, hovering over the trees, indicates their situation: it is not, however, until the road emerges from a close country into the space of open ground immediately in their vicinity, that the white volumes of foam are seen, as if boiling up from a sulphureous gulf. Here a foot-path turns from the road towards a wooded cliff. The rapids are beheld on the right, rushing, for the space of a mile, like a tempestuous sea. A narrow tract descends about sixty feet down the cliff, and continues across a plashy meadow,

through a copse, encumbered with masses of limestone; extricated from which, I found myself on the Table Rock, at the very point where the river precipitates itself into the abyss. The rapid motion of the waters, the stunning noise, the mountain clouds, almost persuade the startled senses that the rock itself is tottering, and on the point of rolling down into the gulf, which swallows up the mass of descending waters. I bent over it, to mark the clouds rolling white beneath me, as in an inverted sky, illumined by a most brilliant rainbow,—one of those features of softness which Nature delights to pencil amid her wildest scenes, tempering her awfulness with beauty, and making her very terrors lovely.

‘There is a ladder about half a mile below the Table Rock, by which I descended the cliff, to reach the foot of the fall. Mr. Weld has detailed the impediments and difficulties of this approach, and M. Volney confesses they were such as to overcome his exertions to surmount them. A few years, however, have made a great change; the present dangers and difficulties may be easily enumerated. The first is, the ordinary hazard every one runs who goes up or down a ladder; this is a very good one of thirty steps, or about forty feet; from thence the path is a rough one, over the fragments and masses of rock which have gradually crumbled, or been forcibly riven from the cliff, and which cover a broad declining space, from its base to the river brink. The only risk in that part of the pilgrimage, is that of a broken shin from a false step. The path grows smooth as it advances to the fall, so that the undivided attention may be given to this imposing spectacle. I felt a sensation of awe as I drew near it, like that caused by the first cannon on the morning of battle. I passed from sunshine into gloom and tempest: the spray beat down in a heavy rain; a violent wind rushed from behind the sheet of water: it was difficult to respire, and, for a moment, it seemed temerity to encounter the convulsive workings of the elements, and intrude into the dark dwellings of their power: but the danger is in appearance only; it is possible to penetrate but a few steps behind the curtain, and in these few there is no hazard; the

footing is good, and the space sufficiently broad and free: there is not even a necessity for a guide; two eyes amply suffice to point out all that is to be seen or avoided.'

The most stupendous of these cataracts is that on the British, or north-western side of the river Niagara, which, from its resemblance to the shape of a horse-shoe, has received the appellation of 'the Great, or Horse-shoe fall;' but this name is no longer strictly applicable. It has become an acute angle, and the alteration is estimated at about eighteen feet in thirty years. The height of this fall is 142 feet. But the two others (for there are three falls, owing to the circumstance of small islands dividing the river Niagara into three collateral branches) are each about 160 feet in height. The largest has been reckoned at about 600 yards in circumference. The width of the island, which separates the 'Great fall' from the next in magnitude, is estimated at about 350 yards. The second fall is said to be only five yards wide. The next island may be estimated at about thirty yards in size; and the third, commonly called the 'Fort Schloper fall,' is about 350 yards. According to these calculations, the islands being included, the entire extent of the precipice is 1885 yards in width. It is supposed that the water carried down these falls amounts to no less a quantity than 670,255 tons per minute. A kind of white foam surrounds the bottom of 'Fort Schloper fall,' and rises up in volumes from the rocks: it does not, however, as at the Horse-shoe fall, ascend above in the form of a cloud of smoke and mist, but the spray is so abundant that it descends like rain upon the opposite bank of the river. The whirlpools and eddies immediately below are so dangerous as to render the navigation completely impracticable for six miles. The river Niagara, above the falls, however, is navigable by boats and canoes as far as fort Chippaway, which is about three or four English miles from them. But, on approaching nearer, the waters are in such a state of agitation, as to require the boat or canoe to be kept in the middle of the stream, and, without skilful management, would inevitably dash it to destruction. The middle of September is considered as the most pleasant time of the year for the examination of these celebrated falls, the surrounding fo-

rests being richly variegated with the autumnal colouring. At this season the traveller is not exposed to the danger of meeting with noxious reptiles and insects of the country, which completely disappear in the chilly nights.

St. Anthony's Falls, in the river Mississippi, are situated about ten miles from the mouth of the river St. Pierre, which joins the Mississippi from the west. These falls were first discovered by Louis Hennipin, in the year 1680, and received their present name from that traveller, who was the first European ever seen by the natives in these parts. The river falls perpendicularly above thirty feet, and is about 250 yards in width. The rapids, which are below, in the space of about 300 yards, render the descent apparently greater when it is viewed at any considerable distance. These falls are so peculiarly situated as to be approachable without any obstruction from a hill or precipice; and the whole surrounding scenery is singularly pleasing.

The *Cohez*, or falls of the river Mohawk, between two and three miles from its entrance into North river, are a very great natural curiosity. The river, above the falls, is about 300 yards wide, and approaches them from the north-west in a rapid current, between the high banks on each side, and pours the whole body of its water over a perpendicular rock of about 40 feet in height, which extends quite across the river like a mill-dam. The banks of the river, immediately below the falls, are about 100 feet high. From a noble bridge, erected in 1794 and 1795, the spectator may have a grand view of the *Cohez*; but they have the most romantic and picturesque appearance from Lausenburg hill, about five miles east of them. The river, immediately below the bridge, divides into three branches, which form several large islands.

Canals.—The rivers and lakes of North America are in many places connected together by CANALS, which furnish an artificial assistance to the communication established in other instances by Nature. The principal interior canals, which have been already completed in the United States, are, the *Middlesex canal*, uniting the waters of the Merrimack river with the harbour of Boston; and the canal *Carondelet*, ex-

nal colouring. At the danger of meeting the country, which

issippi, are situated at St. Pierre, which these falls were first discovered in 1680, and received the name of the first Falls. The river falls about 250 yards in the space of about a mile, and is greater when it is in flood. The falls are so peculiar, that any obstruction to the surrounding scenery is

, between two and three miles, are a very great distance from the falls, is about 300 feet high, and runs north-west in a straight line, and pours over a singular rock of about 100 feet high, and passes the river like a bridge, erected in the grand view of the most picturesque appearance east of them. The river divides into three

in America are in the north, which furnish an established in other parts of the country, prior canals, which in the United States, are, the Merrimack river and the Carondelet, ex-

tending from Bayou St. John to the fortifications of New Orleans, and opening an inland communication with lake Pontchartrain.

On the 17th of April, 1816, and the 15th of April, 1817, the state legislature of New York passed acts appropriating funds for opening navigable communications between the lakes Erie and Champlain and the Atlantic ocean, by means of canals connected with the Hudson river. This magnificent undertaking is already begun, and promises to make effectual progress under the auspices of governor Clinton. We have before us, at this moment, the official report of the canal commissioners; but the extent and the capabilities of these works will be noticed at greater length, when we come to speak of the physical resources of the United States.

Forests.—Aboriginal forests are so numerous throughout the United territory, that none seem to be particularly distinguished. There does not appear to exist, on the whole continent of America, any of those sandy deserts which are so remarkable in Asia and Africa. There is, on the contrary, an exuberance of water even in the most torrid regions; which might be added as a proof of the theory that this continent has more recently emerged. Even the volcanoes in South America often pour down torrents of water and mud, and no where occur the sandy ruins of plains, after the fertile soil has been totally lost, or the rocky skeletons of ancient mountains. The large tract in the eastern part of Virginia and North Carolina, called the Dismal swamp, occupies about 150,000 acres; but it is entirely covered with trees, juniper and cypress on the more moist parts, and on the drier white and red oaks, and a variety of pines. These trees attain a prodigious size; and among them there is often very thick brushwood, so as to render the swamp impervious, while other forests in North America are commonly free from underwood. Cane reeds, and tall rich grass, soon fatten the cattle of the vicinity, which are taught to return to the farms of their own accord. In this swampy forest bears, wolves, deer, and other wild animals abound; and stories are told of children having been lost, who have been seen, after many years, in a wild state of nature.

Some parts are so dry as to bear a horse, while some are overflowed, and others so miry that a man would sink up to the neck. A canal has been led through it; and, even in the dry parts, water of the colour of brandy, as is supposed from the roots of the junipers, gushed in at the depth of three feet. In the northern part the timber supplies an article of trade, while in the southern rice is found to prosper; and in the neighbourhood none of these diseases are known which haunt other marshy situations.

Swamps.—Georgia presents a singular marsh, or in the wet season a lake, called Ekansanoko, by others Ouaquafenoga, in the south-east extremity of the province. This marshy lake is about 300 miles in circumference, and contains several large and fertile isles, one of which is represented by the Creek Indians as a kind of paradise, inhabited by a peculiar race, whose women are incomparably beautiful, and are called by them daughters of the sun. These islanders are said to be a remnant of an ancient tribe, nearly exterminated by the Creeks. Such events may not have been uncommon among savage tribes; and the more industrious people who erected the noted forts may have been passing, like the Mexicans, to a comparative state of civilization, when an unhappy defeat, by more savage tribes, extinguished their name and power. That the natives have no memory of such transactions is not matter of wonder, for their traditions can scarcely exceed a century or two at the utmost.

Mineralogy.—This most important subject has not yet been illustrated in the manner it deserves. Every substance precious to industry has been found in abundance; and there is no doubt but that further researches will discover the more rare and beautiful productions of nature.

Volney, who wrote on the climate and soil of America, makes a supposititious division of the United States into five distinct regions,—the granitic, the sandstone, the calcareous, the sea-sand, and river alluvions.

The granitic commences at the mouth of the river St. Lawrence and ends at Long island. It is mixed with sandstone and limestone, in New Hampshire and Maine, except the White

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mountains in New Hampshire, which are granite. The river Mohawk appears to be the dividing line of the granite and the sandstone; but in the river Susquehannah some granite is found; and at the base of the south-west chain of the White mountains in Virginia.

The whole of the Apalachian mountains are sandstone according to this arrangement; and, towards the north-west, the sandstone ends in slate and marl. The Katskill mountains are of the same sandstone as the Blue ridge.

The calcareous region commences at the west of the Apalachian mountains, and runs to the Mississippi, and, as some have supposed, to the Rocky mountains. This stratum lies horizontally, at depths proportioned to the depositions of soil.

The region of sea-sand runs along all the shore from Long island to Florida. It is bounded towards the land side by a seam of granite, full of large mica, or rather talc; and this boundary runs uninterruptedly along the coast from the west bank of the river Hudson to the river Roanoke in North Carolina; its breadth is from two to six miles, its extent 500. This boundary generally marks the limits of the tide, and frequently occasions falls in the rivers. The land between the granite ridge and the sea varies in breadth from 30 to 100 miles, and is evidently sand recently brought by the ocean, whose limits were originally determined by this hill of granite. The bare rocks projecting into the sea are granite, which seems to indicate that the sand brought in by the sea merely covers rocks of this description.

The region of the river alluvions extends from the granitic ridge to the base of the sandstone mountains; hence it appears that the ridge of granite in the Apalachian chain is narrow and lower than in the sandstone.

Mr. Maclure has recently published much highly interesting information on this important department of science, and seems to have studied the geology of the United States with great success. According to this writer, throughout the greatest part of the northern and north-eastern states, the sea washes the primary rocks; but at Long island there commences an alluvial formation, which, increasing in breadth as it stretches

southward, covers a great part of both the Carolinas and Georgia, and almost the whole of the two Floridas and Lower Louisiana. This vast alluvial formation is bounded on the east by the ocean, and by a line commencing at the eastern end of Long island and passing through Philadelphia, Washington, Richmond in Virginia, Halifax in North Carolina, Columbia in South Carolina, Augusta on the Savannah, and thence to Natchez on the Mississippi. The tide water ends in all the rivers from the Mississippi to the Roanoke at the distance of from 30 to 120 miles from the western limits of the alluvial formation; from the Roanoke to the Delaware, the tide penetrates through the alluvial, and is stopped by the primitive rocks. In all the northern and eastern rivers, the tide runs a small distance into the primitive formations. In the southern states the alluvial formation is elevated considerably above the level of the sea; but as it approaches the north, it rises very little above it.

On the western side of the great range of mountains, there is a long narrow zone of transition rocks, beginning on the eastern side of lake Champlain, and extending in an undulating line in a south-westerly direction, to a point between the Alabama and Tombigbee rivers, in about 34 deg. north lat. and about 85 deg. west long. It is generally broadest where the primitive formation is narrowest, and *vice versa*; and runs from 20 to 100 miles in breadth.

On the north-west of those transition rocks commences an immense region of secondary rocks, extending beyond lake Superior to the north, and some hundred miles beyond the Mississippi to the west, not far distant from the foot of the Stoney mountains, forming an area of about 1500 miles from east to west, and about 1200 miles from north to south.

The volcanic fires which constitute so grand a feature in the geological history of South America, have not extended their dominion to the northern continent, nor have any productions been discovered which indicate that volcanoes have at any time existed there.

Of the primitive rocks granite forms but a small part; but it is found both on the tops of the mountains and in the plains. There are many varieties of it, in regard to the size of its con-

Carolinas and Georgia, Florida, and Lower Louisiana, is bounded on the east at the eastern end of Virginia, Washington, Maryland, Carolina, Columbia in the South, and thence to Nashville, Tennessee, and in all the rivers of the South, at a distance of from 30 to 100 miles from the alluvial formation; it penetrates through the rocks. In all the small distance into the states the alluvial level of the sea; little above it. In the mountains, there is a beginning on the east in an undulating country between the Alabama, Georgia, north lat. and the broadest where the river runs *versus*; and runs to the west. The rocks commence an undulating beyond lake Michigan, miles beyond the foot of the mountains, 1500 miles from the north to south. It is a feature in the country not extended their any productions have at any time a small part; but and in the plains. The size of its con-

stituent parts; and it is occasionally mixed with hornblende. The granite generally divides into rhomboidal masses, and, except in some very small-grained varieties, there is no appearance of stratification. It is frequently so far decomposed as to have lost the adhesion of its particles, to the depth of 30 or 40 feet below the surface; each crystal is in its place, and looks as if it were solid; but when you take it up, it falls into sand. Gneiss extends over a half of the primitive formation. It includes in a great many places beds from three to three hundred feet thick, of a very large-grained granite, which run in the same direction, and dip as the gneiss does.

Within the limits of what may be termed the primitive country, there are found several partial and detached formations of the transition and secondary rocks. A transition formation occupies nearly the whole of Rhode island, and runs from Rhode island to Boston, fifteen miles broad. There is a range of secondary rocks, extending, with some intervals, from the Connecticut to the Rappahannock rivers, a distance of nearly 400 miles; and in width, generally from fifteen to twenty-five miles. It appears to belong to the old red sandstone formation of Werner. A formation of transition rocks runs nearly south-west from the Delaware to the Yadkin river, from two to fifteen miles broad, consisting of beds of blue, grey, red, and white small-grained limestone, alternating with beds of greywacke and greywacke slate, quartzose granular rocks, and a great variety of the transition class. Much of this limestone contains so much small-grained sand, as to resemble a dolomite; and, in many places, considerable beds of fine-grained white marble, fit for the statuary, occur. About ten or twelve miles west of Richmond in Virginia, there is a coal formation, lying upon, and surrounded by primitive rocks. It is situated in an oblong basin, from twenty to twenty-five miles long, and about ten miles wide, having the whitish freestone, slaty clay, &c. with vegetable impressions, as well as most of the other attendants of that formation.

Great varieties of mineral substances are found in the primitive formation; and, from the number already found, in proportion to the limited researches that have been made, it is

probable that, in so great an extent of rocks of a crystalline structure, almost every mineral substance discovered in similar situations elsewhere will be found in this country. Metallic substances are found in considerable abundance in the primitive rocks—iron, copper, manganese, and cobalt. The general nature of metallic repositories in this formation appears to be in beds, disseminated through the rock, or in lying masses. Veins to any great extent have not been discovered in any part of this formation.

The immense basin to the west of the Alleghany mountains, through which so many mighty rivers flow, is wholly composed of secondary rocks, without having their continuity interrupted by any other formation, except the alluvial deposites on the banks of the large rivers. The stratification is almost perfectly horizontal.

The alluvial country, eastward of the Alleghany mountains, is composed of beds of sand, gravel, and clay, differing in their nature, according to that of the adjoining rocks, from the disintegration of which they have been produced. They contain both animal and vegetable remains, which are found to the depth of nearly a hundred feet below the surface. Considerable banks of shells, mostly bivalves, run parallel to the coast, imbedded frequently in a soft clay or mud, resembling that in which the living animal is now found on the sea shore, and which makes the supposition probable that they are of the same species.

Coal exists in several parts of the United States in great abundance. We have already spoken of the vast series of coal strata westward of the Alleghany range, and of an extensive coal formation near Richmond in Virginia. In Pennsylvania, it is found near the west branch of the Susquehannah; in various places west of that branch; also on the Juniata, and on the waters of the Alleghany and Monongehala. In Connecticut, a coal formation, commencing at Newhaven, crosses Connecticut river at Middletown, and, embracing a width of several miles on each side of the river, extends to some distance above Northampton, in Massachusetts. There are also indications of coal in the states of New York and New Jersey. In

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Rhode island anthracite is found, accompanied by argillaceous sandstone, shale with vegetable impressions, &c. similar to the usual series of coal strata. The coal at Middletown, in Connecticut, is accompanied by a shale which is highly bituminous, and burns with a bright flame.

It abounds with very distinct and perfect impressions of fish, sometimes a foot or two in length; the head, fins, and scales, being perfectly distinguishable. A single specimen sometimes presents parts of three or four fish, lying in different directions, and between different layers. The fish are sometimes contorted, and almost doubled. Their colour, sometimes grey, is usually black; and the fins and scales appear to be converted into coal. The same shale contains impressions of vegetables, sometimes converted into pyrites.

Neither Mr. Cleaveland nor Mr. Maclure give us any information respecting the extent to which the coal has been wrought in any of the numerous places where it has been found, or the thickness of the seams. A scarcity of wood for fuel must be felt before coal will be sought after with much spirit; and there is probably still wanting in the United States that profusion of capital which can be risked in the uncertain operations of mining.

Iron is found in the United States in a great variety of forms, and is worked to a considerable extent. In the year 1810, there were 530 furnaces, forges, and bloomeries, in the United States, 69 of which were in the State of New York; and the iron manufactured at Ancram, New York, is said to be superior, for many purposes, to the Russian and Swedish iron. It is made from a hematitic brown oxide. Mr. Maclure informs us, that there is a bed of magnetic iron ore, from eight to twelve feet thick, wrought in Franconia, near the White hills, New Hampshire; that there is a similar bed in the direction of the stratification, six miles north-east of Philipstown, on the Hudson river; and, still following the direction of the stratification, that the same ore occupies a bed nearly of the same thickness at Ringwood, Mount Pleasant, and Suckusanny, in New Jersey; losing itself, as it approaches the end of the primitive ridge, near Blackwater—a range of nearly 300 miles.

This immense deposit of iron ore is contained in gneiss, and is accompanied by garnet, epidote, and hornblende. In the state of New York, magnetic iron ore is found in immense quantities on the west side of lake Champlain, in granitic mountains. The ore is in beds, from one to twenty feet in thickness, and generally unmixed with foreign substances: large beds of this ore extend, with little interruption, from Canada to the neighbourhood of New York. Clay ironstone is met with in considerable quantities. In Maryland, there are extensive beds of it three miles south-west of Baltimore, composed of nodules formed by concentric layers. Bog iron ore occurs in such abundance in many places, as to be smelted to a great extent.

Copper in the native state, and most of its ores, have been found in different parts of the United States; but there are no mines of this metal except in New Jersey, and these do not appear to be worked with much success.

Lead has been discovered in a great variety of forms; and there are several extensive mines of it. In Upper Louisiana, at St. Genevieve, on the western bank of the Mississippi, there are about ten mines. The ore, which is a sulphuret, is found in detached masses of from one to five hundred pounds, in alluvial deposits of gravel and clay, immediately under the soil; and sometimes in veins or beds, in limestone. One of the mines produces annually about 245 tons of ore, yielding 66½ per cent. There are mines also at Perkiomen, in Pennsylvania, 24 miles from Philadelphia. The ore is chiefly a sulphuret; but it is accompanied by the carbonate, phosphate, and molybdate. In Massachusetts, there is a vein of galena, traversing primitive rocks, six or eight feet wide, and extending twenty miles from Montgomery to Hatfield. The ore affords from 50 to 60 per cent. of lead.

Gold has only been found in North Carolina. It occurs in grains or small masses, in alluvial earths, and chiefly in the gravelly beds of brooks, in the dry season; and one mass was found weighing 28 lb. In 1810, upwards of 1340 ounces of this gold, equal in value to 24,689 dollars, had been received at the mint of the United States.

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Native silver, in small quantities, is met with at different places, but in no other form. Mercury and tin have not been found. Cobalt occurs near Middletown in Connecticut; and a mine of it was at one time worked. Manganese and antimony are found in several situations. Sulphuret of zinc is found in considerable quantity in Maryland, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, and Massachusetts. In New Jersey, a new variety of this metal has been discovered, in such abundance, that it promises to be a very valuable acquisition to the United States. It is a red oxide, composed, of oxide 76, oxygen 16, oxides of manganese and iron 8. It is reduced without difficulty to the metallic state.

The chromate of iron, both crystallized and amorphous, occurs in different situations; particularly near Baltimore, and at Hoboken, in New Jersey. This mineral is employed to furnish the chromic acid, which, when united with the oxide of lead, forms chromate of lead—a very beautiful yellow pigment, of which there is a manufactory at Philadelphia. It is sold under the name of chromic yellow, and is employed for painting furniture, carriages, &c.

We have before noticed the vast extent of limestone of different species that is spread over the United States; and professor Cleaveland of Bawdwin College, in an *Elementary Treatise on Mineralogy and Geology*, enumerates several varieties of the primitive limestones in the eastern states, which are used as marble in ornamental architecture and in sculpture; but he remarks that the state of the arts has not yet caused them to be extensively quarried, or even sufficiently explored. Some of the Vermont marbles are as white as the Carrara, with a grain intermediate between that of the Carrara and Parian marbles. At Middlebury, in Vermont, during the years 1809 and 1810, 20,000 feet of slabs were cut by one mill, containing 65 saws; and the sales of marble, during the same period, amounted to about 11,000 dollars. In Rhode island it is found snow white, of a fine grain, translucent, and perfectly resembles the Carrara marble.

Gypsum, or plaster stone, is found in Virginia, Maryland, and Connecticut. It is very abundant in several parts of the

state of New York, particularly in Onondago and Madison counties; also in the vicinity of Cayuga lake, whence, in 1812, 6000 tons of it were exported to Pennsylvania. In many parts of the United States, it has been found an important article of manure, in the cultivation of grasses, roots, and grain.

Rock salt has not hitherto been discovered; but there are numerous salt springs. These sometimes flow naturally; but are more frequently formed by sinking wells in those places where the salt is known to exist, as in certain marshes and in salt *licks*, so called from having been formerly the resort of wild animals to *lick* the clay impregnated with the salt. These springs are chiefly found in the country westward of the Alleghany mountains, near the rivers which flow into the Ohio. They occur also in the state of New York, near the Onondago and Cayuga lakes, associated with the great gypsum formation already noticed. This brine is strong, and yields about 300,000 bushels of salt annually. The whole quantity of salt annually obtained from saline springs in the United States, exceeds 600,000 bushels.

Nitre of potash, or saltpetre, is met with in considerable abundance. Mr. Cleaveland gives the following description of the places where it is principally obtained.

‘The calcareous caverns which abound in the state of Kentucky furnish large quantities of nitre. The earths which exist in these caverns, and which contain both the nitrate of potash and the nitrate of lime, are lixiviated; and the lixivium is then made to pass through wood ashes, by the alkali of which the nitrate of lime is decomposed. After due evaporation, the nitre is permitted to crystallize. One of the most remarkable of these caverns is in Madison county, on Crooked creek, about 60 miles south-east from Lexington. This cavern extends entirely through a hill, and affords a convenient passage for horses and waggons. Its length is 646 yards, its breadth is generally about 40 feet, and its average height about 10 feet. One bushel of the earth in this cavern commonly yields from one to two pounds of nitre; and the same salt has been found to exist at the depth of 15 feet: even the clay is impregnated with nitrate of lime.

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‘Kentucky also furnishes nitre under a very different form, and constituting what is there called the *rock ore*, which is in fact a sandstone richly impregnated with nitrate of potash. These sandstones are generally situated at the head of narrow valleys which traverse the sides of steep hills. They rest on calcareous strata, and sometimes present a front from 60 to 100 feet high. When broken into small fragments, and thrown into boiling water, the stone soon falls into sand, one bushel of which, by lixiviation and crystallization, frequently yields 10 lb. and sometimes more than 20 lb. of nitrate of potash. The nitre obtained from these rocks contains little or no nitrate of lime, and is said to be superior for the manufacture of gunpowder to that extracted from the afore-mentioned earths.

‘Masses of native nitre, nearly pure, and weighing several pounds, are sometimes found in the fissures of these sandstones, or among detached fragments. Indeed, it is said that these masses of native nitre sometimes weigh several hundred pounds. Similar caverns occur in Tennessee, and in some parts of Virginia and Maryland.’

With the exception of the red oxide of zinc, and the native magnesia, discovered by Dr. Bruce, no simple minerals have hitherto been discovered in the United States that were not already known to exist in other parts of the world. There are some of the simple minerals, however, which are found in a state of great perfection, such as the cyanite, green tourmaline and rubellite, melanite, precious serpentine, garnet, and beryl. A mass of native iron has recently been found near Red river in Louisiana. The form is irregular; its length being three feet four inches, and its greatest breadth two feet four inches—its weight exceeds 3000 lb. Its surface is covered with a blackish crust, and is deeply indented. It is very malleable and compact; but is unequally hard, some parts being easily cut by a chisel, while others have nearly the hardness of steel. Its specific gravity is 7.40. It contains nickel, and is less easily oxidated than purified iron. This is rendered particularly interesting, by its containing in its interior octahedral crystals, which may be easily cut by a knife, and are striated

like magnetic iron. The largest crystal is more than half an inch in length.

Amethysts are found in Virginia; but it is probable that the emerald mentioned by Mr. Jefferson is only a green crystal. No mineralogic discovery has been made in Georgia, besides a bank of oyster shells, 90 miles from the sea.

Mineral Waters.—There are several mineral waters, of various virtues, in different provinces of the United States, but none of distinguished eminence like Bath, or Aix-la-Chapelle. In the province of Vermont, or the Green mountain, there is a remarkable sulphureous spring, which dries up in two or three years, and bursts out in another place. There are several mineral springs in Massachusetts, but little frequented, and there is another at Stafford in Connecticut. Those of Saratoga, in the province of New York, are remarkably copious, and surrounded with singular petrifications. They are considerably frequented, as well as those of New Lebanon in the same country. New Jersey boasts of some chalybeate waters; and near Isle creek in Pennsylvania on the river Alleghany, or Ohio, there is a spring which yields petroleum, said to be useful in rheumatic complaints. Two warm springs occur in Virginia, one of them 112 deg. These are called the springs of Augusta; but others more frequented are near the river Potomak. A bituminous spring was discovered on the estate of general Washington, which easily takes fire, and continues burning for some time. The salt springs in Kentucky also deserve mention; and there are others in the province of Tennessee. In Georgia, near the town of Washington, there is a remarkable spring rising from a hollow tree, which is encrusted with matter probably calcareous.

Botany.—A country that experiences on the one frontier the severity of the Canadian winters, and on the other bask in the full radiance of the West Indian summers, may naturally be expected to contain no small variety of native plants. So numerous and important indeed are they, as to render it impossible, in a work not devoted particularly to the subject, to notice them as they deserve; we must therefore be contented

with the selection of such alone as, from their utility and beauty, have the strongest claim to our attention.

The botany of these states, including the Floridas, or, in other words, of the whole region extending eastward from the Mississippi to the ocean, and southward from the river St. Lawrence with its lakes to the gulf of Mexico, may be divided into those vegetables which are common to the whole country, and those that occupy only particular parts.

The most generally diffused species among the timber trees are the willow-leaved oak growing in the swamps; the chestnut oak, which in the southern states attains an enormous size, and is almost as valuable for its sweet farinaceous acorns as for its wood; the white oak; the red and the black. Next to these in rank are two kinds of walnut, the black, and the white or hickory, esteemed for its oily nuts. The chestnut and beech of Europe are also found abundantly in the American forests. The tulip tree and sassafras laurel, more impatient of cold than the preceding, appear as shrubs on the Canadian borders, rise into trees in the midland states, and on the warm banks of the Alabama attain the full perfection of stateliness and beauty. The sugar maple, on the contrary, is seen only on the northern sides of the hills in the southern states, and increases both in size and frequency in the more bracing climate of the New England provinces. The sweet gum tree, the iron wood, the nettle tree, the American elm, the black poplar, and the taccamahacca, appear in every state of the Union wherever the soil is suitable, without being much affected by variety of climate. The light sandy tracts, both wet and dry, are principally inhabited by the important and useful family of pines: of these the chief species are the Pennsylvanian fir, the common and the hemlock spruce fir; the black, the white, and the Weymouth pine; and the larch: nearly allied to which are the arbor vitæ, and the juniperus virginiana, the red cedar of America. The smaller trees and shrubs that are dispersed in all parts of the United States, among a multitude of others, consist of the following; the fringe tree, the red maple, the sumach and poison oak, the red mulberry, the persimmon plum, and robinia pseudacacia, and the triple-thorned acacia.

Such of the common herbaceous plants and low shrubs as are best known to the generality of readers, from their introduction into the gardens of Great Britain, are the collinsonia, used by the Indians against the bite of the rattlesnake, several gay species of phlox, the thorn-apple, the Pennsylvanian lily and martagon, the biennial oenothera, with many species of aster, monarda, and rudbeckia.

The mountainous ridges are not sufficiently high to be rich in alpine plants; their climate, however, is sensibly cooler than that of the plains, on which account those of the south are inhabited by the vegetables of Pennsylvania and the northern states, while the highlands of these abound in the plants of Canada.

But the glories of the American flora are principally confined to Virginia and the southern states; it is here that the unfading verdure of the wide savannas, the solemn magnificence of the primeval forests, and the wild exuberance of the steaming swamps, offer to the astonished admiration of the botanist every thing that by colour, by fragrance, and by form, can delight the senses and fix the attention.

Among the vegetables that inhabit the low shores of the Floridas, Georgia, and South Carolina, may be distinguished the mangrove tree, the only shrubby plant that can flourish in salt water, the fragrant and snowy-flowered *pancratium* of Carolina, and the splendid *lobelia cardinalis*.

The low ridges of calcareous soil running parallel with the rivers, and rising from the level savannas into extensive lawns and swelling hills, are generally covered with open or entangled woods, except where they have been converted into tillage by the industry of the inhabitants. In these rich tracts grow the lofty palmetto, the evergreen oak, the sweet bay, the benzoe laurel, the common laurel, the white shading broom pine, and the red cedar. The strait silvery columns of the papaw fig, rising to the height of twenty feet, and crowned by a canopy of broad sinuated leaves, form a striking feature in this delicious scenery; while the golden fruit and fragrant blossoms of the orange, here realize the ancient traditions of the groves of the Hesperides. Superior, however, to all these is the tower-

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ing magnificence of the great magnolia: in this rich marley soil it rises above a hundred feet, with a perfectly erect trunk, supporting a shady conical head of dark green foliage: from the centre of the coronets of leaves that terminate the branches expands a large rose-shaped blossom of pure white, which is succeeded by a crimson one, containing the seeds of a beautiful coral red colour, and these falling from their cells remain for several days suspended from the seed-vessel by a silky thread, six inches or more in length, so that whether in this state or in blossom it is second to none for grandeur and beauty.

The level plains by the sides of rivers, and therefore generally in a flooded state during the whole rainy season, are called savannas. The trees that grow upon them are of the aquatic kind, such as magnolia glauca, or beaver tree, American olive, and gordonia lausianthus, silvered over with fragrant blossoms: these are generally either single, or grouped together into small open groves, while the larger part of the meadow is overgrown with long succulent herbage, intermixed with shrubs and plants; the candleberry myrtle, with numerous species of azaleas, kalmias, andromedas, and rhododendrons, arranged by the hand of nature into thickets and shrubberies entwined and over-arched by the crimson granadilla, or the fantastic clitoria, here display their inimitable beauties in full luxuriance. The sides of the pools and shallow plashe are adorned by the bright cærulean flowers of the ixia, the golden blossoms of the canna lutea, and the rosy tufts of the hydrangia, while the edges of the groves, and the dubious boundaries of the savannas, rising imperceptibly towards the forests, are fringed by innumerable gay varieties of the phlox, by the shrinking sensitive plant, the irritable dionæa, the glowing amaryllis atamasco, and the impenetrable ranks of the royal palmetto.

The swamps are at all times, even in the height of summer, for the most part under water, and are distinguished from the rest of the country by the crowded stems of the cane, the light foliage of the tupelo tree, the ticcamahacca, the fringe tree, and the white cedar. This last is perhaps the most picturesque tree in all America: four or five enormous buttresses or rude pillars rise from the ground, and unite in a kind of arch at the

height of about seven feet, and from this centre there springs a straight column eighty or ninety feet high, without a branch: it then divides into a flat umbrella-shaped top, covered with finely divided leaves of the most delicate green. This platform is the secure abode of the eagle and the crane; and the oily seeds contained in its cones are the favourite repast of the parquets that are constantly fluttering around.

Hundreds more of interesting plants yet remain, and we might go on to describe with unabated pleasure the profusion of various coloured lupines and dwarf palmettos that relieve the dusky hue of the pine forests in which they live; the wild vines, the gourds, the bignonias, and other climbers that display to the sun their fruits and glowing blossoms above the summits of the tallest trees; we might describe the tent-like shade of the plantanus, the regal splendour of the crimson-flowered horse-chesnut, and the humbler, less obtrusive, yet not less exquisite beauties of the meadia, the spigelia, and gaura; but these our limits will not admit: it is enough for the present purpose to have sketched some of the characteristic features in the botany of a country, the most accessible of all the warmer climates to the investigation of European science.

Zoology.—The domestic zoology of the United States nearly corresponds with that of the parent country, with some few shades of difference in size and colour. Among the larger wild animals may be mentioned the bison, large herds of which used to be seen near the Mississippi, and they were once very numerous in the western parts of Virginia and Pennsylvania. The musk bull and cow only appear in the more western regions, beyond the Mississippi. Among the animals now lost are classed the mammoth, whose enormous bones are particularly found near the salt springs upon the Ohio; and teeth of the hippopotamus are said to have been dug up in Long island: but the labours of a late French naturalist have evinced that such remains often belong to animals long since extirpated, and of which he has traced more than twenty kinds. The mainmoth of America, though armed with tusks of ivory, has been supposed to be even five or six times larger than the elephant; but the bones are probably the same with those of

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the supposed elephant found in Siberia. The moose deer are become extremely rare, and will probably in no long time be utterly extirpated, as the wolf and boar have been in Britain. The black moose deer are said to have been sometimes twelve feet in height, while the species called the grey seldom exceed the height of a horse. Both have large palmated horns, weighing thirty or forty pounds. Mr. Pennant mentions a pair that weighed fifty-six pounds, the length being thirty-two inches. The moose deer is only a large species of the elk, and is found in the northern parts of the United States; while the rein deer inhabits the northern regions of British America. The American stag rather exceeds the European in size, and is seen in great numbers feeding in the rich savannas of the Missouri and Mississippi, where there are also herds of that kind called the Virginian deer.

In the northern states are two kinds of bears, both black; but that carnivorous animal called the ranging bear is found in all the states, as is the wolf. Several kinds of foxes are also seen: and the wolverine seems a kind of bear. The animal most dreaded is the catamount, or cat of the mountains, found in the northern and middle states, and is probably the same with the *puma* of Pennant, which he says is sometimes in North America called the panther. One killed in New Hampshire was six feet in length, and the tail three; but the length of the leg did not exceed twelve inches. The *cougar* is about five feet in length, and in the southern states is called the tiger: but it is well known that the ferocious animals of the new continent are totally different from those of the old, there being neither lions, tigers, leopards, nor panthers, in the whole extent of America. A German missionary, who resided twenty-two years in Paraguay, describes the tiger of that country as marked with black spots, sometimes on a whitish, sometimes on a yellowish ground; and says that as the lions of Africa far exceed those of Paraguay, so the African tigers greatly yield in size to the American; which may be just, as the royal tiger seems peculiar to Asia. But he adds that he has seen the skin of a tiger three ells and two inches in length, or equal to that of a large ox. This animal easily carries off a horse or an ox; and

seems to exceed in size any American beast of prey admitted in the system of Buffon, whose fondness for theories is often to be lamented; and his *jaguar*, or American tiger, seems only a diminutive species. Captains Lewis and Clerk frequently encountered the white and brown bear in the north-west interior; an animal of a most ferocious description: they also saw herds of antelopes, buffaloes, and wolves.

The lynx, the ocelot, and the margay, are smaller beasts of prey, of the cat kind. These and many other animals supply furs. The beaver is well known from the fur, and the singular formation of his cabin, built in ponds for the sake of security; but he seems to feed on the twigs of trees, and not on fish, as commonly supposed. This industrious animal is found in all the states, and is somewhat imitated by the musk rat, which likewise builds his hut in shallow streams. Some kinds of monkeys are said to be found in the southern states. The morse, or sea cow, and the seal, used to frequent the northern shores; and the manati, common in South America, is said sometimes to appear on the southern coasts: this animal, which has fore feet like hands, and a tail like a fish, while the breasts of the female resemble those of a woman, seems to be the mermaid of fable.

Among the birds there are many kinds of eagles, vultures, owls, and numerous sorts called by European names, though generally different in the eye of the naturalist. The bird called a turkey is peculiar to America, and abounds in the north. They were brought from Mexico to Spain, and from Spain to England about 1524; the African poultry, or *meleagrides* of more ancient authors, being Guinea fowls. There are also birds which resemble the partridge, ptarmigan, and quail, of Europe. Virginia abounds with beautiful birds, among which is the humming bird, as already mentioned, while the wakon resembles the bird of paradise: and it may be conceived that vast varieties of aquatic birds crowd the numerous lakes and rivers, the largest being the wild swan, which sometimes weighs thirty-six pounds.

Upwards of one hundred and thirty American birds have been enumerated, and many of them described by Catesby,

Jefferson, and Carver. The following catalogue is inserted to gratify the curious, to inform the inquisitive, and to shew the astonishing variety in this beautiful part of the creation.

The Blackbird	Sheldrarch or Canvass Duck
Razor-billed ditto	Buffels head ditto
Baltimore Bird	Spoon bill ditto
Bastard Baltimore	Summer ditto
Blue Bird	Blackhead ditto
Buzzard	Blue-winged Shoveller
Blue Jay	Little Brown Duck
Blue Grossbeak	Sprigtail
Brown Bittern	White-faced Teal
Crested Bittern	Blue-winged Teal
Small Bittern	Pied-bill Dobchick
Booby	Eagle
Great Booby	Bald Eagle
Blue Peter	Flamingo
Bullfinch	Fieldfare of Carolina, or Robin
Bald Coot	Purple Finch
Cut Water	Bahama Finch
White Curlew	American Goldfinch
Cat Bird	Painted Finch
Cuckow	Crested Fly-catcher
Crow	Black-cap ditto
Cowpen Bird	Little brown ditto
Chattering Plover or Kildee	Red-eyed ditto
Crane or Blue Heron	Finch Creeper
Yellow-breasted Chat	Storm Finch
Cormorant	Goat Sucker of Carolina
Hoopng Crane	Gull
Pine Creeper	Laughing Gull
Yellow-throated Creeper	Goose
Dove	Canada Goose
Ground Dove	Hawk
Duck	Fishing Hawk
Ilathera Duck	Pigeon Hawk
Round-crested ditto	Night Hawk

The Swallow-tailed Hawk	Soree
Hangbird	Snipe
Heron	Red Start
Little white Heron	Red-winged Starling
Heath-cock	Swallow
Humming-bird	Chimney ditto
Purple Jackdaw, or Crow	Snow-bird
Blackbird	Little Sparrow
King Bird	Bahama ditto
King-fisher	Stork
Loon	Turkey
Lark	Wild Turkey
Large Lark	Tyrant
Blue Linnet	Crested Titmouse
Mock-bird	Yellow ditto
Mow-bird	Bahama ditto
Purple Martin	Hooded ditto
Nightingale	Yellow Rump
Noddy	Towhe Bird
Nuthatch	Red Thrush
Oyster-catcher	Fox-coloured Thrush
Owl	Little Thrush
Screech Owl	Tropic Bird
Amer. Partridge, or Quail	Turtle of Carolina
Pheasant, or Mountain	Water-wagtail
Partridge	Water-hen
Water Pheasant	Water-witch
Pelican	Wakon Bird
Water Pelican	Whetsaw
Pigeon of Passage	Large white bellied Woodpecker
White-crowned Pigeon	Large red-crowned ditto
Parrot of Paradise	Gold-winged ditto
Paroquet of Carolina	Red-bellied ditto
Raven	Hairy ditto
Rice-bird	Red-headed ditto
Red-bird	Yellow-bellied ditto
Summer Red-bird	Smallest-spotted ditto
Swan	Wren

Some of the frogs are of remarkable size; and the tortoise, or turtle, supplies a delicious food, while the alligator is not unknown in the southern rivers. Of serpents Mr. Morse enumerates near forty kinds found in the United territories; Virginia, in particular, producing great numbers. The rattlesnake is the largest, being from four to six feet in length, and is one of the most dreaded. Among the fish are most of those which are esteemed in Europe; and among those that are peculiar may be mentioned that large kind of white trout found in the lakes.

Natural Curiosities.—The natural curiosities of the United States are numerous, and have been investigated with that laudable attention, which has been particularly directed by the English towards such interesting appearances. The following account of the irruption of the Patomak through the Blue mountains is from the pen of Mr. Jefferson.

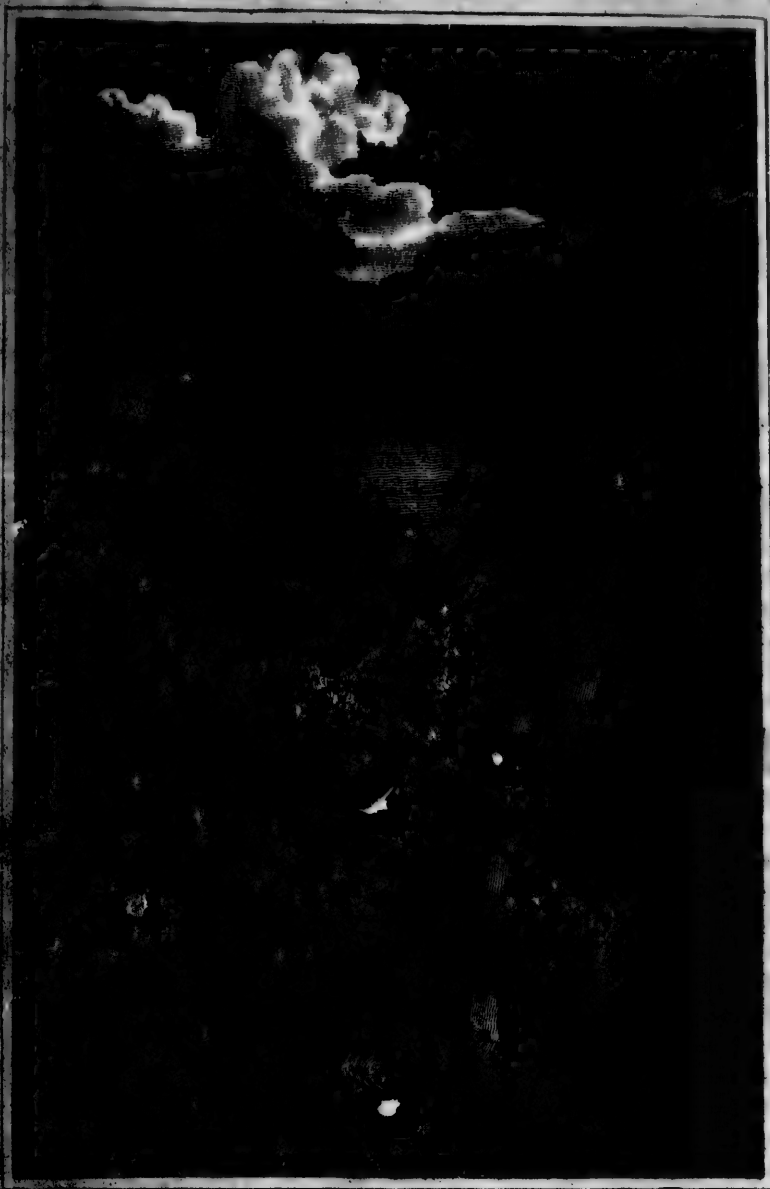
'The passage of the Patomak through the Blue ridge is perhaps one of the most stupendous scenes in nature. You stand on a very high point of land. On your right comes up the Shenandoah, having ranged along the foot of the mountain an hundred miles to seek a vent. On your left approaches the Patomak, in quest of a passage also. In the moment of their junction, they rush together against the mountain, rend it asunder, and pass off to the sea. The first glance of this scene hurries our senses into the opinion, that this earth has been created in time, that the mountains were formed first, that the rivers began to flow afterwards, that in this place particularly they have been dammed up by the Blue ridge of mountains, and have formed an ocean which filled the whole valley; that continuing to rise, they have at length broken over at this spot, and have torn the mountain down from its summit to its base. The piles of rock on each hand, but particularly the Shenandoah, the evident marks of their disruption and avulsion from their beds by the most powerful agents of nature, corroborate the impression. But the distant finishing which nature has given to the picture is of a very different character. It is a true contrast to the fore ground. It is as placid and delightful as that is wild and tremendous. For the mountain being cloven

asunder, she presents to your eye, through the cleft, a small catch of smooth blue horizon, at an infinite distance in the plain country, inviting you, as it were, from the riot and tumult roaring around, to pass through the breach, and participate of the calm below. Here the eye ultimately composes itself; and that way too the road happens actually to lead. You cross the Patomak above the junction, pass along its side through the base of the mountain for three miles, its terrible precipices hanging in fragments over you, and within about twenty miles reach Frederick town and the fine country round that. This scene is worth a voyage across the Atlantic. Yet here, as in the neighbourhood of the natural bridge, are people who have passed their lives within half a dozen miles, and have never been to survey these monuments of a war between rivers and mountains, which must have shaken the earth itself to its centre.

In the township of Tinmouth in Vermont, on the side of a small hill, is a very curious cave. The chasm, at its entrance, is about four feet in circumference. Entering this you descend 104 feet, and then opens a spacious room, 20 feet in breadth and 100 feet in length. The angle of descent is about 45 degrees. The roof of this cavern is of rock, through which the water is continually percolating. The stalactites which hang from the roof appear like icicles on the eaves of houses, and are continually increasing in number and magnitude. The bottom and sides are daily incrusting with spar and other mineral substances. On the sides of this subterraneous hall are tables, chairs, benches, &c, which appear to have been artificially carved. This richly ornamented room, when illuminated with the candles of the guides, has an enchanting effect upon the eye of the spectator. If we might be indulged in assigning the general cause of these astonishing appearances, we should conclude, from the various circumstances accompanying them, that they arise from water filtrating slowly through the incumbent strata; and taking in its passage a variety of mineral substances, and becoming thus saturated with metallic particles, gradually exuding on the surface of the caverns and fissures, in a quiescent state, the aqueous particles evaporate, and leave the mineral substances to unite according to their affinities.

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VIEW OF THE ROCK BRIDGE,

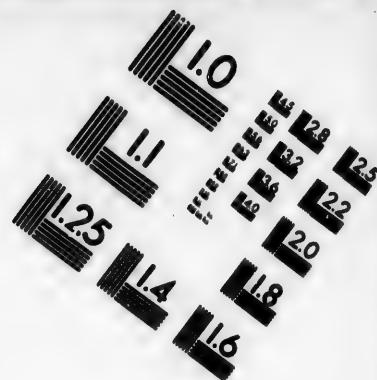
Height 263 feet. Span 80 do. Thickness of the arch 40 do.

At the end of this cave is a circular hole, fifteen feet deep, apparently hewn out, in a conical form, enlarging gradually as you descend, in the form of a sugar loaf. At the bottom is a spring of fresh water, in continual motion, like the boiling of a pot. Its depth has never been sounded.

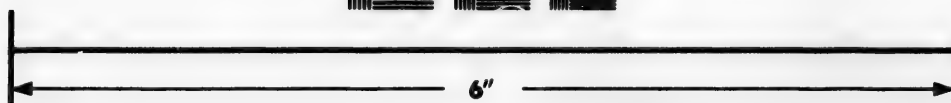
In the county of Rockbridge is a remarkable natural bridge of rock, from which the county takes its name. 'This bridge,' says Mr. Weld, 'stands about ten miles from Fluvanna river, and nearly the same distance from the Blue ridge. It extends across a deep cleft in a mountain, which, by some great convulsion of nature, has been split asunder from top to bottom, and it seems to have been left there purposely to afford a passage from one side of the chasm to the other. The cleft or chasm is about two miles long, and is in some places upwards of 200 feet deep; the depth varies according to the height of the mountain, being deepest where the mountain is most lofty. The breadth of the chasm also varies in different places: but in every part it is uniformly wider at the top than towards the bottom. That the two sides of the chasm were once united appears very evident, not only from projecting rocks on the one side corresponding with suitable cavities on the other, but also from the different strata of earth, sand, clay, &c. being exactly similar from top to bottom on both sides: but by what great agent they were separated, whether by fire or by water, remains hidden amongst those arcana of nature which we vainly endeavour to develope.

'The arch consists of a solid mass of stone, or of several stones cemented so strongly together that they appear but as one. This mass, it is to be supposed, at the time that the hill was rent asunder, was drawn across the fissure, from adhering closely to one side, and being loosened from its bed of earth at the opposite one. It seems as probable, I think, that the mass of stone forming the arch was thus forcibly plucked from one side, and drawn across the fissure, as that the hill should have remained disunited at this one spot from top to bottom, and that a passage should afterwards have been forced through it by water. The road leading to the bridge runs through a thick wood, and up a hill; having ascended which, nearly at





A resolution test chart featuring various patterns of horizontal and vertical lines of increasing frequency. Each pattern is accompanied by a numerical value indicating its resolution. The values include 1.0, 1.1, 1.25, 1.4, 1.6, 1.8, 2.0, 2.2, 2.5, 2.8, 3.2, 3.6, 4.0, 4.5, 5.0, 5.6, 6.3, 7.1, 8.0, 9.0, 10, 11.2, 12.5, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22.5, 25, 28, 32, 36, 40, 45, 50, 56, 63, 71, 80, 90, 100, 112, 125, 140, 160, 180, 200, 225, 250, 280, 320, 360, 400, 450, 500, 560, 630, 710, 800, 900, 1000, 1120, 1250, 1400, 1600, 1800, 2000, 2250, 2500, 2800, 3200, 3600, 4000, 4500, 5000, 5600, 6300, 7100, 8000, 9000, 10000.



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the top, you pause for a moment at finding a sudden discontinuance of the trees at one side; but the amazement which fills the mind is great indeed, when on going a few paces towards the part which appears thus open, you find yourself on the brink of a tremendous precipice. You involuntarily draw back, stare around, then again come forward to satisfy yourself that what you have seen is real, and not the illusions of fancy. You now perceive that you are upon the top of the bridge; to the very edge of which, on one side, you may approach with safety, and look down into the abyss, being protected from falling by a parapet of fixed rocks. The walls, as it were, of the bridge, at this side, are so perpendicular, that a person leaning over the parapet of rock might let fall a plummet from the hand to the very bottom of the chasm. On the opposite side this is not the case, nor is there any parapet; but from the edge of the road, which runs over the bridge, is a gradual slope to the brink of the chasm, upon which it is somewhat dangerous to venture. This slope is thickly covered with large trees, principally cedars and pines. The opposite side was also well furnished with trees formerly, but all those which grew near the edge of the bridge have been cut down by different people, for the sake of seeing them tumble to the bottom. Before the trees were destroyed in this manner, you might have passed over the bridge without having had any idea of being upon it; for the breadth of it is no less than eighty feet. The road runs nearly in the middle, and is frequented daily by waggons.

At the distance of a few yards from the bridge, a narrow path appears, winding along the sides of the fissure, amidst immense rocks and trees, down to the bottom of the bridge. Here the stupendous arch appears in all its glory, and seems to touch the very skies. To behold it without rapture, indeed, is impossible; and the more critically it is examined, the more beautiful and the more surprising does it appear. The height of the bridge to the top of the parapet is 213 feet by admeasurement with a line; the thickness of the arch 40 feet; the span of the arch at top 90 feet; and the distance between the abutments at bottom 50 feet. The abutments consist of a

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solid mass of limestone on either side, and, together with the arch, seem as if they had been chiselled out by the hand of art. A small stream, called Cedar creek, running at the bottom of the fissure, over beds of rocks, adds much to the beauty of the scene.

The fissure takes a very sudden turn just above the bridge, according to the course of the stream, so that when you stand below, and look under the arch, the view is intercepted at the distance of about 50 yards from the bridge: Mr. Jefferson's statement, in his notes, that the fissure continues straight, terminating with a pleasing view of the North mountains, is quite erroneous. The sides of the chasm are thickly covered in every part with trees, excepting where the huge rocks of limestone appear.

Besides this view from below, the bridge is seen to very great advantage from a pinnacle of rocks, about 50 feet below the top of the fissure; for here not only the arch is seen in all its beauty, but the spectator is impressed in the most forcible manner with ideas of its grandeur, from being enabled at the same time to look down into the profound gulf over which it passes.

In Vermont there is a remarkable impendent ledge of rocks, about 300 feet high, on the west bank of the river Connecticut. Rattlesnake hill, in New Hampshire, presents a stalactitic cave; and near Durham is a rock so poised on another, as to move with one finger; a natural remain of a ruined hill, though in England it would be called druidical. The rivulet in Massachusetts, called Hudson's brook, has excavated in a fantastic manner a large rock of white marble. The falls of the river Powow, in the same province, are not only curious in themselves, but present many grotesque mills, and other monuments of industry; and a similar appearance occurs on the river Pautukit in Rhode island. In Connecticut is a cave which was for some time the retreat of Whaley and Goffe, two of the judges of Charles I.: and in the town of Pomfret is another, rendered remarkable by a humorous adventure of general Putnam.

In the province of New York a rivulet runs under a hill about 70 yards in diameter, forming a beautiful arch in the rock; and there is a stalactitic cave in which was found the petrified skeleton of a large snake. The falls of the Mohawk river, called Cohez, are more remarkable for the width of the stream, than from the height of the descent. There is a beautiful cascade in Fayette county, Pennsylvania, over a semicircular rock of marble. In Pennsylvania there are also some remarkable caves, one of which resembles a church with pillars and monuments. In the territory on the north-west of the Ohio, the savannas, or rich plains, extend for 30 or 40 miles without any tree; they are crowded with deer, wild cattle, and turkeys, and often visited by bears and wolves: but this district is chiefly remarkable for a number of old forts, of an oblong form, with an adjoining tumulus or tomb. As the Mexicans have a tradition that they passed from the north, these forts may perhaps be remains of their first residence, or of some nation which they subdued. In the western part of Maryland there are said to be some remarkable caves: and others occur in Virginia, particularly that called Madison's cave, on the north-west side of the Blue ridge, extending about 300 feet into the solid limestone. The blowing cave emits a strong current of air, particularly in frosty weather. In Kentucky, the banks of the river so called, and of Dick's river, are sometimes 400 feet in height of limestone, or white marble; and there are said to be caverns of some miles in length, thus rivalling the celebrated cave in Carinthia. The territory on the south of the Ohio (Tennessee) presents a remarkable ledge of rocks in the Cumberland mountains, about 30 miles in length, and 300 feet thick, with a perpendicular face to the south-east. The *whirl* is more grand than the irruption of the Patomak through the Blue ridge: the Tennessee, which a few miles above is half a mile wide, contracts to 100 yards, and forces its way through this outer ridge of the Apalachian, forming a whirlpool by striking against a large rock. In Georgia the chief curiosity is a large bank of oyster shells, 80 miles from the sea, to which it runs nearly parallel: if the

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river Savannah never passed in that direction, it is probable that the land has gained so far on the ocean. So late as the year 1771 there was an excellent harbour, which might receive one hundred ships in a good depth of water, at cape Lookout, North Carolina. It is now entirely filled up, and is solid ground.

Such are the most striking features of nature in this extensive empire; where, if there be no interesting objects of antiquity, yet the lovers of the sublime and beautiful in the creation may find sufficient to contemplate and admire.

APPENDIX

THE following is a list of the names of the several States and Territories of the United States, with the number of the page on which they are described.

Alabama 10
Alaska 11
Arizona 12
Arkansas 13
California 14
Colorado 15
Connecticut 16
Delaware 17
Florida 18
Georgia 19
Idaho 20
Illinois 21
Indiana 22
Iowa 23
Kansas 24
Kentucky 25
Louisiana 26
Maine 27
Maryland 28
Massachusetts 29
Michigan 30
Minnesota 31
Mississippi 32
Missouri 33
Montana 34
Nebraska 35
Nevada 36
New Hampshire 37
New Jersey 38
New Mexico 39
New York 40
North Carolina 41
North Dakota 42
Ohio 43
Oklahoma 44
Oregon 45
Pennsylvania 46
Rhode Island 47
South Carolina 48
South Dakota 49
Tennessee 50
Texas 51
Utah 52
Vermont 53
Virginia 54
Washington 55
West Virginia 56
Wisconsin 57
Wyoming 58

A
PARTICULAR ACCOUNT
OF THE SEVERAL
STATES AND TERRITORIES
COMPREHENDED IN THE
UNITED STATES.

NEW ENGLAND.

SEVERAL things are common to all the states east of New York. Their history, religion, manners, customs, and character; their climate, soil, productions, and natural history, are in many respects similar. These considerations have led to the following general description of New England.

Extent.—This fine province is in length 350 miles, by a medial breadth of 140.

Boundaries.—New England is bounded, north by Canada; east by Nova Scotia and the Atlantic ocean; south by the Atlantic and Long island sound; and west by New York. It lies in the form of a quarter of a circle. Its west line, beginning at the mouth of Byram river, which empties into Long island sound, at the south-west corner of Connecticut, latitude 41 deg., runs a little east of north, until it strikes the 45th degree of latitude, and then curves to the eastward almost to the gulf of St. Lawrence.

Civil Divisions.—New England is divided into five states, viz. New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode island, Connecti-

cut, and Vermont. These states are subdivided into counties, and the counties into townships.

Face of the Country, Mountains, &c.—New England is a high, hilly, and in some parts a mountainous country, formed by nature to be inhabited by a hardy race of free, independent republicans. The mountains are comparatively small, running nearly north and south in ridges parallel to each other. Between these ridges flow the great rivers in majestic meanders, receiving the innumerable rivulets and larger streams which proceed from the mountains on each side. To a spectator on the top of a neighbouring mountain, the vales between the ridges, while in a state of nature, exhibit a romantic appearance. They seem an ocean of woods, swelled and depressed in its surface like that of the great ocean itself. A richer, though less romantic view, is presented, when the vallies, by industrious husbandmen, have been cleared of their natural growth; and the fruit of their labour appears in loaded orchards, extensive meadows covered with large herds of sheep and neat cattle, and rich fields of flax, corn, and the various kinds of grain.

These vallies, which have received the expressive name of *interval lands*, are of various breadths, from two to twenty miles; and by the annual inundations of the rivers which flow through them, there is frequently an accumulation of rich, fat soil, left upon their surface when the waters retire.

There are four principal ranges of mountains passing nearly from north-east to south-west, through New England. These consist of a multitude of parallel ridges, each having many spurs, deviating from the course of the general range; which spurs are again broken into irregular, hilly land. The main ridges terminate sometimes in high bluff heads, near the sea coast, and sometimes by a gradual descent in the interior part of the country. One of the main ranges runs between Connecticut and Hudson's rivers. This range branches, and bounds the vales through which flows the Housatonic river. The most eastern ridge of this range terminates in a bluff head at Meriden. A second ends in like manner at Willingford, and a third at New Haven.

In Lyme, on the east side of Connecticut river, another range of mountains commences, forming the eastern boundary of Connecticut vale. This range trends northerly, at the distance generally of about ten or twelve miles east from the river, and passes through Massachusetts, where the range takes the name of Chicabee mountain; thence crossing into New Hampshire, at the distance of about twenty miles from the Massachusetts line, it runs up into a very high peak, called Monadnick, which terminates this ridge of the range. A western ridge continues, and in about latitude 43 deg. 30 min. runs up into Sunipsee mountains. About 50 miles further, in the same ridge, is Mooscoog mountain.

A third range begins near Stonington in Connecticut. It takes its course north-easterly, and is sometimes broken and discontinued; it then rises again, and ranges in the same direction into New Hampshire, where, in lat. 43 deg. 25 min., it runs up into a high peak, called Cowsawaskoog.

The fourth range has a humble beginning about Hopkinton, in Massachusetts. The eastern ridge of this range runs north, by Watertown and Concord, and crosses Merrimack river at Pantucket falls. In New Hampshire it rises into several high peaks, of which the White mountains are the principal. From these White mountains a range continues north-east, crossing the east boundary of New Hampshire, in lat. 43 deg. 30 min., and forms the height of land between Kennebeck and Chaudiere rivers.

These ranges of mountains are full of lakes, ponds, and springs of water, that give rise to numberless streams of various sizes, which, interlocking each other in every direction, and falling over the rocks in romantic cascades, flow meandering into the rivers below. No country on the globe is better watered than New England.

On the sea coast the land is low, and in many parts level and sandy. In the vallies, between the forementioned ranges of mountains, the land is generally broken, and in many places rocky; but of a strong rich soil, capable of being cultivated to good advantage, which also is the case with many spots even on the tops of the mountains.

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Rivers.—The only river which will be described under New England is Connecticut river. It rises in a swamp on the height of land, in lat. 43 deg. 10 min. After a sleepy course of eight or ten miles, it tumbles over four separate falls, and turning west, keeps close under the hills which form the northern boundary of the vale through which it runs. The Ammonoosuck and Israel rivers, two principal branches of Connecticut river, fall into it from the east, between the latitudes 44 and 45 deg. Between the towns of Walpole on the east, and Westminster on the west side of the river, are the great falls. The whole river, compressed between two rocks scarcely 30 feet asunder, shoots with amazing rapidity into a broad bason below. Over these falls, a bridge 160 feet in length, was built in 1784, under which the highest floods may pass without detriment. This is the first bridge that was ever erected over this noble river. Above Deerfield, in Massachusetts, it receives Deerfield river from the west, and Miller's river from the east; after which it turns westerly in a sinuous course to Fighting falls, and a little after tumbles over Deerfield falls, which are impassable by boats. At Windsor, in Connecticut, it receives Farmington river from the west; and at Hartford, meets the tide. From Hartford it passes on in a crooked course, until it falls into Long island sound, between Saybrook and Lyme.

The length of this river, in a straight line, is nearly 90 miles. Its general course is several degrees west of south. It is from 80 to 100 rods wide, 130 miles from its mouth.

At its mouth is a bar of sand which considerably obstructs the navigation. Ten feet water at full tides is found on this bar, and the same depth to Middleton. The distance of the bar from this place, as the river runs, is 36 miles. Above Middleton are several shoals which stretch quite across the river. Only six feet water is found on the shoal at high tide, and here the tide ebbs and flows but about eight inches. About three miles below Middleton, the river is contracted to about 40 rods in breadth, by two high mountains. Almost every where else the banks are low, and spread into fine extensive meadows. In the spring floods, which generally happen in

May, these meadows are covered with water. At Hartford the water sometimes rises 90 feet above the common surface of the river, and having all to pass through the above-mentioned strait, it is sometimes two or three weeks before it returns to its usual bed. These floods add nothing to the depth of water on the bar at the mouth of the river; this bar lying too far off in the sound to be affected by them.

On this beautiful river, whose banks are settled almost to its source, are many pleasant, neat, well-built towns. It is navigable to Hartford, upwards of 50 miles from its mouth; and the produce of the country, for 200 miles above, is brought thither in boats. The boats which are used in this business are flat-bottomed, long, and narrow, for the convenience of going up the stream, and of so light a make as to be portable in carts. They are taken out of the river at three different carrying places, all of which make fifteen miles. Sturgeon, salmon, and shad are caught in plenty, in their season, from the mouth of the river upwards, excepting sturgeon, which do not ascend the upper falls; besides a variety of small fish, such as pike, carp, perch, &c.

Natural Productions.—The soil, as may be collected from what has been said, must be very various. Each tract of different soil is distinguished by its peculiar vegetation, and is pronounced good, middling, or bad, from the species of trees which it produces; and one species generally predominating in each soil, has originated the descriptive names of oak land; birch, beech, and chesnut lands; pine barren; maple, ash, and cedar swamps, as each species happen to predominate. Intermingled with these predominating species are walnut, fir, elm, hemlock, magnolia, or moose wood, sassafras, &c. &c. The best lands produce walnut and chesnut; the next, beech and oak; the lands of the third quality produce fir and pitch pine; the next, whortleberry and barberry bushes; and the poorest produces nothing but poor marshy imperfect shrubs, which is the lowest kind of *suffrutex* vegetation.

Among the flowering trees and shrubs in the forests, are the red flowering maple, the sassafras, the locust, the tulip tree, the chesnut, the wild cherry, prune, crab, sloe, pear, honey-

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suckle, wild rose, dogwood, elm, leather tree, laurel, hawthorn;
&c. which in the spring of the year give the woods a most
beautiful appearance, and fill them with a delicious fragrance.

Among the fruits which grow wild, are the several kinds of
grapes, which are small, sour, and thick skinned. The vines
on which they grow are very luxuriant, often overspreading
the highest trees in the forests. These wild vines, without
doubt, might be greatly meliorated by proper cultivation, and
a wine be produced from the grapes equal, if not superior, to
the celebrated wines of France. Besides these, are the wild
cherries, white and red mulberries, cranberries, walnuts, hasle-
nuts, chesnuts, butter nuts, beech nuts, wild plums and pears,
whortleberries, bilberries, gooseberries, strawberries, &c.

The soil in the interior country is calculated for the culture
of Indian corn, rye, oats, barley, flax, and hemp, for which
the soil and climate are peculiarly proper; buck-wheat, beans,
peas, &c. In many of the inland parts wheat is raised in large
quantities; but on the sea coast it has never been cultivated
with success, being subject to blasts. Various reasons have
been assigned for this. Some have supposed that the blasts
were occasioned by the saline vapours of the sea; others have
attributed them to the vicinity of barberry bushes; but per-
haps the sandiness and poverty of the soil may be as efficacious
a cause as either of the others.

The fruits which the country yields from culture are, apples
in the greatest plenty; of these cider is made, which consti-
tutes the principal drink of the inhabitants; also, pears of va-
rious sorts, quinces, peaches, from which is made peach brandy,
plums, cherries, apricots, &c. The culinary plants are such as
have already been enumerated.

New England is a fine grazing country; the vallies between
the hills are generally intersected with brooks of water, the
banks of which are lined with a tract of rich meadow or inter-
val land. The high and rocky ground is, in many parts, co-
vered with honey-suckle, and generally affords the finest of
pasture. It will not be a matter of wonder, therefore, that
New England boasts of raising some of the finest cattle in the
world; nor will she be envied, when the labour of raising them

is taken into view. Two months of the hottest season in the year, the farmers are employed in procuring food for their cattle; and the cold winter is spent in dealing it out to them.

Manners and Customs.—New England is the most populous part of the United States; the greater proportion of which consists of a strong and healthy yeomanry and cultivators of the soil. They are almost universally of English descent. Learning, from the establishment of schools in every township, is very generally diffused among all ranks of people; so that a person who cannot read and write is rarely to be found. Like all people who are confined to a domestic life, they have been accused of an *impertinent inquisitiveness*. Their politics render them independent, proud, and dictatorial; from which originates that restless, litigious, complaining spirit, which forms a dark shade in the character of New Englandmen. They have been depicted in the following manner by an American writer.

“The New Englanders are generally tall, stout, and well-built. They glory, and perhaps with justice, in possessing that spirit of freedom, which induced their ancestors to leave their native country, and to brave the dangers of the ocean, and the hardships of settling a wilderness. Their education, laws, and situation, serve to inspire them with high notions of liberty. Their jealousy is awakened at the first motion toward an invasion of their rights. They are indeed often jealous to excess; a circumstance which is a fruitful source of imaginary grievances, and of innumerable groundless suspicions, and unjust complaints against government. But these ebullitions of jealousy, though censurable and productive of some political evils, shew that the essence of true liberty exists in New England; for jealousy is the guardian of liberty, and a characteristic of free republicans. A law, respecting the descent of estates which are generally held in fee simple, which for substance is the same in all the New England states, is the chief foundation and protection of this liberty. By this law, the possessions of the father are to be equally divided among all the children, excepting the eldest son, who has a double portion. In this way is preserved that happy mediocrity among

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the people, which, by inducing economy and industry, removes from them temptations to luxury, and forms them to habits of sobriety and temperance. At the same time, their industry and frugality exempt them from want, and from the necessity of submitting to any encroachment on their liberties.

'The people of New England generally obtain their estates by hard and persevering labour: they of consequence know their value, and spend with frugality. Yet in no country do the indigent fare better. Their laws oblige every town to provide a competent maintenance for their poor, and the necessitous stranger is protected and relieved from their humane institutions. It may in truth be said, that in no part of the world are the people happier, better furnished with the necessities and conveniences of life, or more independent than the farmers of New England. As the great body of the people are hardy, independent freeholders, their manners are, as they ought to be, congenial to their employment, plain, simple, and unpolished. Strangers are received and entertained among them with a great deal of artless sincerity, friendly and informal hospitality. Their children, those imitative creatures, to whose education particular attention is paid, early imbibe the manners and habits of those around them; and the stranger, with pleasure, notices the honest and decent respect that is paid him by the children as he passes through the country.

'As the people, by representation, make their own laws and appoint their own officers, they cannot be oppressed; and living under governments in which few have lucrative places, they have few motives to bribery, corrupt canvassings, or intrigue. Real abilities and moral character unblemished, are the qualifications requisite in the view of most people for officers of public trust. The expression of a wish to be promoted is the direct way to be disappointed.

'The inhabitants of New England are generally fond of the arts, and have cultivated them with great success. Their colleges have flourished beyond any others in the United States. The illustrious characters they have produced, who have distinguished themselves in politics, law, divinity, the mathematics

and philosophy, natural and civil history, and in the fine arts, particularly in poetry, evince the truth of these observations.

Many of the women of New England are handsome. They generally have fair, fresh, and healthful countenances, mingled with much female softness and delicacy. Those who have had the advantages of a good education (and they are considerably numerous) are genteel, easy, and agreeable in their manners, and are sprightly and sensible in conversation. They are early taught to manage domestic concerns with neatness and economy. Ladies of the first rank and fortune make it a part of their daily business to superintend the affairs of the family. Employment at the needle, in cookery, and at the spinning wheel, with them is honourable. Idleness, even in those of independent fortune, is universally disreputable. The women in the country manufacture the greatest part of the clothing of their families. Their linen and woollen cloths are strong and decent. Their butter and cheese is not inferior to any in the world.

Dancing is the principal and favourite amusement in New England; and of this the young people of both sexes are extremely fond. Gaming is practised by none but those who cannot, or rather will not find a reputable employment. The gamester, the horse-jockey, and the knave, are equally despised, and their company is avoided by all who would sustain fair and irreproachable characters. The odious and inhuman practices of duelling, gouging, cock-fighting, and horse-racing, are scarcely known here.

The athletic and healthy diversions of cricket, foot-ball, quoits, wrestling, jumping, hopping, foot-races, and prison-bass, are universally practised in the country, and some of them in the most populous places, and by people of almost all ranks. Squirrel-hunting is a noted diversion in country places, where this kind of game is plenty. Some divert themselves with fox-hunting, and others with the more profitable sports of fishing and duck-hunting: and in the frontier settlements, where deer and fur game abound, the inhabitants make a lucrative sport of hunting them.

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'In the winter season, while the ground is covered with snow, which is commonly two or three months, sleighing is the general diversion. A great part of the families throughout the country are furnished with horses and sleighs. The young people collect in parties, and with a great deal of sociability, resort to a place of rendezvous, where they regale themselves for a few hours with dancing and a social supper, and then retire. These diversions, as well as all others, are many times carried to excess. To these excesses, and a sudden exposure to extreme cold after the exercise of dancing, physicians have ascribed the consumptions, which are so frequent among the young people in New England.'

History.—New England owes its first settlement to religious persecution. Soon after the commencement of the reformation in England, which was not until the year 1534, the protestants were divided into two parties; one the followers of Luther, and the other of Calvin. The former had chosen gradually, and almost imperceptibly, to recede from the church of Rome; while the latter, more zealous, and convinced of the importance of a thorough reformation, and at the same time possessing much firmness and high notions of religious liberty, were for effecting a thorough change at once. Their consequent endeavours to expunge from the church all the inventions which had been brought into it since the days of the apostles, and to introduce the 'Scripture purity,' derived for them the name of PURITANS. From these the inhabitants of New England descended.

During the successive reigns of Henry VIII., Mary, Elizabeth, and James I., the protestants, and especially the puritans, were the objects of bloody persecution; and thousands of them were either inhumanly burnt, or left more cruelly to perish in prisons and dungeons.

In 1602, a number of religious people in the north of England, finding their ministers urged with *subscription*, or silenced, and themselves greatly oppressed with the commissary courts and otherwise, entered into a solemn covenant with each other, 'to walk with God and one another, in the enjoyment of the ordinances of God according to the primitive pattern,' whatever it might cost them.

Among the ministers who entered into this association, was Mr. Robinson, a man of eminent piety and learning, and the father of New England.

In 1608, Mr. Robertson's church moved to Amsterdam in Holland, and the next year to Leyden, where they lived in great friendship and harmony among themselves and their neighbours, until they removed to New England.

As early as 1617, Mr. Robinson and his church meditated a removal to America. Their motives for this were, to preserve the morals of their youth; to prevent them, through want of employment, from leaving their parents, and engaging in business unfriendly to religion; to avoid the inconveniences of incorporating with the Dutch; and to lay a foundation for propagating the gospel in remote parts of the world. Such were the true reasons of their removal.

Their agents went to England, and in 1619 obtained of the Virginian company a patent of the northern parts of Virginia; but the king could not be prevailed upon to grant them liberty of conscience. However, at last he agreed to connive at their nonconformity. Mr. Brewster, a minister, headed the first band of adventurers, who on the 9th of November, after a dangerous voyage, arrived at cape Cod. It is alleged by the historians of the time, that the Dutch had bribed the master to create various delays, and to land them thus far north, to discourage them from venturing to the place of their destination.

As they were not within the limits of their patent, and consequently not under the jurisdiction of the Virginia company, they concluded it necessary to establish a separate government for themselves. Accordingly, before they landed, having on their knees devoutly given thanks to God for their safe arrival, they formed themselves into a body politic, by a SOLEMN CONTRACT, to which they all subscribed, thereby making it the basis of their government. They chose Mr. John Carver, a gentleman of piety and approved abilities, to be their governor for the first year. This was on the 11th of November.

Their next object was to fix on a convenient place for settlement. In doing this they were obliged to encounter numerous difficulties, and to suffer incredible hardships. Many of them

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were sick in consequence of the fatigues of a long voyage—their provisions were bad—the season was uncommonly cold—the Indians, though afterwards friendly, were now hostile—and they were unacquainted with the coast. These difficulties they surmounted; and on the 31st of December they were all safely landed at a place, which, in grateful commemoration of Plymouth in England, the town which they last left in their native land, they called *Plymouth*. This is the first English town that was settled in New England.

In some of their excursions in search of a suitable place for settlement, they found buried several baskets of Indian corn, to the amount of ten bushels, which fortunately served them for planting the next spring, and perhaps was the means of preserving them from perishing with hunger. They made diligent enquiry for the owners, whom they found, and afterwards paid the full value of the corn.

Before the end of November, Susanna, the wife of William White, was delivered of a son, whom they called *Peregrine*. He is supposed to have been the first child of European extract born in New England.

The whole company that landed consisted of but 101 souls. Their situation was distressing, and their prospect truly dismal and discouraging. Their nearest neighbours, except the natives, were a French settlement at Port Royal, and one of the English at Virginia. The nearest of these was 500 miles from them, and utterly incapable of affording them relief in a time of famine and danger. To add to their distresses, a general and very mortal sickness prevailed among them, which swept off forty-six of their number before the opening of the next spring.

On the 8d of November, 1620, king James signed a patent incorporating the duke of Lenox, the marquisses of Buckingham and Hamilton, the earls of Arundel and Warwick, Sir Francis Gorges, with thirty-four others, and their successors, styling them, 'The council established at Plymouth in the county of Devon, for the planting, ruling, ordering, and governing of New England in America.' To this council he granted all that part of America which lies between the 40th

and 45th degrees of north latitude. This patent is the great *civil basis* of all the grants and patents by which New England was afterwards divided.

The Plymouth council retained the power vested in them by the crown until the year 1635, when they resigned their charter. Previous to this, however, the council had made several grants of land to adventurers, who proposed to settle in New England. They granted New Hampshire to captain John Mason, in 1621; the province of Maine, to Sir R. Gorges, in 1622; and Massachusetts bay to Sir Henry Roswell and five others, in 1627.

In defiance of every difficulty, the colony gradually increased in strength. The Indians were conciliated, several quaker and baptist refugees fled to within the Plymouth bounds, and in 1629 another company of Leydeners came over. New England now began to flourish; and in forty years from this time, one hundred and twenty towns were settled and forty churches established. This rapid increase of the population was occasioned by the persecution of the puritans in England, and the inroads made upon the civil liberties of the subject; and which induced lords Brook, Say and Seal, the Pelhams, the Hampdens, and the Pyma, to obtain and settle upon large tracts of land in New England.

The jealousy of the Dutch, and the successive plots of the surrounding Indians, in 1643 compelled the colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts, and New England, to enter into an alliance and confederacy for their mutual defence. Two commissioners from each colony formed a congress, and were considered as the representatives of 'The United Colonies of New England.' It is worthy of remark, that this arrangement seems to have been exactly copied in the confederation agreed upon by the United States in 1778.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

NEW HAMPSHIRE is situated between 42 deg. 42 min. and 45 deg. 13 min. north latitude, and 4 deg. 23 min. and 6 deg. 10 min. east longitude. Its greatest length is 182, and its greatest breadth 92 miles. Its area is 9800 square miles, containing 6,272,000 acres.

Civil Divisions.—The state is divided into six counties, and 219 townships, of six miles square each.

Natural Geography.—The state has about 15 miles of sea coast, from whence it extends in breadth, and is generally level towards the sea, rising gradually from 20 to 30 miles, when the mountains commence, and these are more lofty than in any other part of the United States; the White mountains being visible 30 miles out at sea, and computed by Dr. Belknap at 10,000 feet, by Mr. Williams at 7800. There are several lakes in the state, but none of any great importance, except Winnipiseogee, near the centre, 24 miles long, and of unequal breadth, from 3 to 12 miles. It is full of islands, and being navigable in summer, and frozen over in winter, it proves a considerable convenience to that part of the country. The principal river is Connecticut, which is the boundary line between this state and Vermont. The Piscataqua is the boundary line, for a little way, between this state and the district of Maine; and forms the harbour for the only shipping port in New Hampshire. There is a singular curiosity in the state called the Notch, which is a pass through the mountains, at one place only 22 feet wide; and, being bounded by rocks almost perpendicular and of great height, presents a scene strikingly picturesque.

The soil, near the sea coast, is in some places sandy, but near the banks of rivers generally good, as is likewise the case in the valleys among the mountains. The mountains are,

many of them, rocky and barren ; but others are fertile on the brows, and nearly all are covered with timber.

The climate is healthy ; but the winters are long and severe, and there are great extremes of heat and cold. Mr. Belknap has observed the thermometer at 18 deg. below 0, and in summer it has risen to nearly 100 deg. : its average is about 48 or 50 deg. Snow lies on the ground from three to four months, and the use of sleighs, during that period, is general. The spring is rapid ; and the summer and fall are generally pleasant.

Agriculture is the chief business of the state, and is well conducted. The principal products are beef, pork, mutton, poultry, wheat, corn, and other grain ; butter, cheese, flax, hemp, hops, vegetables, apples, pears, &c.

The minerals quoted are, ochres, isinglass, crystals, sulphur, freestone, lead, black lead, and copper ; but the most valuable is iron, which is found in many places, and is wrought in considerable quantities.

Population.—The population of this state, in 1817, amounted to 296,450, being above 30 to the square mile. Although this appears but a thin population, yet it is to be observed that a great part of the state is covered by mountains, which are incapable of cultivation. The sea coast, valleys, and fertile spots, are said to be thickly settled ; and these places have kept pace in improvement with the other New England states.

Manners, &c.—The inhabitants are represented as hardy, robust, and active. They are in general well educated ; and the population is not mixed with negroes or foreigners from the different states of Europe.

Education.—In the township of Hanover, in the western part of this state, is Dartmouth college, situated on a beautiful plain, about half a mile east of Connecticut river. It was named after the right honourable William earl of Dartmouth, who was one of its principal benefactors. It was founded by Dr. Eleazer Wheelock in 1769. It is supported by a grant of 80,000 acres of land. It has, in the four classes, about 190 students, under the direction of a president, two professors, and two tutors. It has twelve trustees, who are a body corporate, invested with the powers necessary for such a body.

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The library is elegant, containing a large collection of the most valuable books. Its apparatus consists of a competent number of useful instruments, for making mathematical and philosophical experiments. There are three buildings for the use of the students; one of which was erected in 1786, and is not yet finished. It is 150 feet in length, and 50 in breadth, three stories high, and handsomely built. It has a broad passage running through its centre from end to end, intersected by three others. In front is a large green, encircled with a number of handsome houses. Such is the salubrity of the air, that no instance of mortality has happened among the students since the first establishment of the college.

At Exeter there is a flourishing academy, and at Portsmouth a grammar-school. All the towns are bound by law to support schools.

Chief Towns.—Portsmouth is much the largest town in this state. It stands on the south-east side of Piscataqua river, about two miles from the sea, and contains about 6000 inhabitants. The town is handsomely built and pleasantly situated. Its public buildings are a court-house, two churches for congregationalists, one for episcopalians, and one other house for public worship. Its harbour is one of the finest on the continent, having a sufficient depth of water for vessels of any burthen. It is defended against storms by the adjacent land in such a manner, as that ships may securely ride there in any season of the year. Besides, the harbour is so well fortified by nature, that very little art will be necessary to render it impregnable. Its vicinity to the sea renders it very convenient for naval trade. A light-house, with a single light, stands at the entrance of the harbour.

Exeter is a pretty town, fifteen miles south-westerly from Portsmouth, on the south side of Exeter river. It has a harbour of eight and a half feet water, and was formerly famous for ship-building. Dover Neck, which makes a part of the town of Dover, is situated between two branches of Piscataqua river, and is a fine, dry, and healthy situation; so high as to command the neighbouring shores, and afford a very extensive and delightful prospect.

Concord is the seat of government, and contains 2050 inhabitants. Dover contains 2062; Amherst, 2150; Hanover, 1920; Keene, 1645; Charleston, 1634; Durham, 1128; and there are three others, containing from 500 to 1000.

Small villages and farm houses are numerous, and the country is pretty well supplied with good roads, and some elegant bridges, of which the chief is across the Piscataqua, seven miles above Portsmouth. It is 2600 feet long, and cost 68,000 dollars.

Trade and Resources.—By an act of congress, which passed in 1796, in New Hampshire, 3,749,061 acres of land were valued at 19,028,108 dollars. In 1814 and 1815, the value of houses and lands, as revised by the assessors, was 38,745,974 dollars, which is nearly at the rate of nine dollars per acre.

The net revenue of New Hampshire, in 1815, was 92,316 dollars. The registered tonnage employed in foreign trade amounted to 24,532, and the enrolled coasting trade to 20517.

The country people generally manufacture their own clothing, and make considerable quantities of tow cloth for exportation. The other manufactures are ashes, maple-sugar, bricks, pottery, and iron ware.

A great part of the surplus produce of this state is carried to Boston, which prevents it from making a great figure in the scale of exports; the amount, in 1805, was 608,408 dollars, but it seldom exceeds half a million. All the export trade centres at Portsmouth.

Religion.—The churches in New Hampshire are principally for congregationalists; some for presbyterians and baptists, and one for episcopalians. Ministers contract with their parishes for their support. No parish is obliged to have a minister; but if they make a contract with one, they are obliged by law to fulfil it. Liberty is ever given to any individual of a parish to change their denomination; and in that case they are liberated from their part of the parish contract.

Government.—The government is founded upon a bill of rights, declaring that all men are born equally free and independent; and that all government originates from the people: that every man has a right to worship God according to the

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dictates of his conscience: that all elections ought to be free; and that every inhabitant of the state, having the proper qualifications, has an equal right to elect, and be elected, into office: that there shall be no hereditary rights, and that the press shall be free.

The exercise of the government is vested in a legislature, consisting of a senate and house of representatives; a governor and council to execute the laws; and a judiciary to promote justice between man and man. The senate consists of thirteen members, chosen annually by the people; each member must be possessed of a freehold estate of 200l. The representatives are apportioned according to the population, every town which has 150 rateable polls being entitled to one representative; having 450, they are entitled to two. They are also elected annually, and must be possessed of a freehold of 100l. The governor is in like manner elected annually, and must be possessed of a freehold of 500l. There are five counsellors, who are chosen annually, who must be possessed of freeholds of 300l.

The following extract from the constitution ought to be generally known.

‘Knowledge and learning, generally diffused through a community, being essential to the preservation of a free government; and spreading the opportunities and advantages of education through the various parts of the country, being highly conducive to promote this end; it shall be the duty of the legislators and magistrates, in all future periods of this government, to cherish the interest of literature and the sciences, and all seminaries and public schools, to encourage private and public institutions, rewards and immunities for the promotion of agriculture, arts, sciences, commerce, trade, manufactures, and natural history of the country; to countenance and inculcate the principles of humanity and general benevolence, public and private charity, industry and economy, honesty and punctuality, sincerity, sobriety, and all social affections and generous sentiments, among the people.’

History.—The first discovery made by the English of any part of New Hampshire, was in 1614, by captain John Smith, who ranged the shore from Penobscot to cape Cod; and in this

route discovered the river Piscataqua. On his return to England, he published a description of the country, with a map of the coast, which he presented to prince Charles, who gave it the name of *New England*.

In 1621, captain John Mason obtained from the council of Plymouth, a grant of all the land from the river Naumkeag (new Salem) round cape Ann, to the river Merrimack, up each of those rivers, and from a line connecting the furthest sources of them inclusively, with all islands within three miles of the coast. This district was called *Mariana*. The next year, another grant was made to Sir Ferdinando Gorges and Mason jointly, of all the lands between the Merrimack and Sagadahok, extending back to the great lakes of Canada. This grant, which includes a part of the other, was called *Laconia*.

Under the authority of this grant, in 1623, a settlement was made at Little harbour, near the mouth of the Piscataqua.

In 1629, some planters from Massachusetts bay, wishing to form a settlement in the neighbourhood of Piscataqua, procured a general meeting of the Indians, at Squamacot falls, where, *with the universal consent of their subjects*, they purchased of the Indian chiefs, for a valuable consideration, a tract of land comprehended between the rivers Piscataqua and Merrimack, and a line connecting these rivers, drawn at the distance of about 80 miles from the sea coast. The same year, Mason procured a new patent, under the common seal of the council of Plymouth, of the above-mentioned Indian purchase.

In 1635, the Plymouth company resigned their charter to the king; but this resignation did not materially affect the patentees under them, as the several grants to companies and individuals were mostly confirmed, at some subsequent period, by charters from the crown.

In April, 1641, the principal settlers of Piscataqua, by a formal instrument, resigned the jurisdiction of the whole to Massachusetts, on condition that the inhabitants should enjoy the same liberties with their own people, and have a court of justice erected among them. The property of the whole patent of Portsmouth, and of one-third of that of Dover, and of all the improved lands therein, was reserved to the lords and gen-

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tlomen proprietors and their heirs for ever. These reservations
were acceded to on the part of Massachusetts; and what is
extraordinary, and manifested the fondness of the government
for retaining them under their jurisdiction, a law of Massachu-
setts, declaring that none but church members should sit in the
general court, was dispensed with in their favour. While they
were united with Massachusetts, they were governed by the
general laws of the colony, and the conditions of the union
were strictly observed. During this period, however, they had
to struggle with many difficulties. One while involved, toge-
ther with Massachusetts, in a bloody war with the Indians;
and repeatedly disturbed with the warm disputes occasioned
by the ineffectual efforts of Mason's heirs to recover the pro-
perty of their ancestor. These disputes continued until 1679,
when Mason's claim, though never established in law, was pa-
tronised by the crown, and New Hampshire was erected into a
separate government.

In the year 1691, Mason's heirs sold their title to their lands
in New England to Samuel Allan, of London, for 2750*l*.; and
in 1692, colonel Samuel Allan was commissioned governor of
New Hampshire. Eight years after, he came over to America
to prosecute his claim, but died before the affair was concluded.

The inhabitants about this time suffered extremely from the
cruel barbarity of the Indians: Exeter, Dover, and the fron-
tier settlements, were frequently surprised in the night; the
houses plundered and burnt; the men killed and scalped; and
the women and children either inhumanly murdered, or led
captives into the wilderness. The first settlers in other parts
of New England were also, about this time, harassed by the
Indians; and it would require volumes to enumerate their
particular sufferings.

Although New Hampshire was under the jurisdiction of the
governor of Massachusetts, yet they had a separate legislature.
They ever bore a proportionable share of the expences and le-
vies in all enterprises, expeditions, and military exertions, whe-
ther planned by the colony or the crown. In every stage of
the opposition that was made to the encroachments of the Bri-
tish parliament, the people, who ever had a high sense of li-

berty, cheerfully bore their part. At the commencement of hostilities, indeed, while their council was appointed by royal *mandamus*, their ardour was checked by these crown officers. But when freed from this restraint, they flew eagerly to the American standard when the voice of their country declared for war; and their troops had a large share of the hazard and fatigue, as well as of the glory, of accomplishing the late revolution.

MASSACHUSETTS.

Situation and Extent. MASSACHUSETTS is situated between 41 deg. 13 min. and 42 deg.

52 min. north lat., and 3 deg. 28 min. and 7 deg. east long. Its extreme length is 190 miles, and its greatest breadth 100. Its square contents is 8500 miles, being about 5,440,000 acres. Bounded northwardly by New Hampshire and Vermont; west by New York; southwardly by Connecticut, Rhode island, and the Atlantic; east by the Atlantic and Massachusetts bay.

Natural Geography.—The face of the country is strikingly diversified. The coast on the east side is indented with bays, and studded with islands, which afford ample harbours for shipping, and support a hardy race of sailors and fishermen. Toward the middle the surface is agreeably uneven, and the west swells out into mountains, some of which are of considerable height. The state is well watered, abounding in rivers and small lakes.

Merrimak river, before described, runs through the north-eastern part of the state. Charles river rises from five or six sources, on the south-east side of Hopkinton and Holliston ridge. The main stream runs north-east, then north and north-eastwardly, round this ridge, until, in Natick township,

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it mingles with Mother brook, which is a considerable branch of Charles river. The river, thus formed, runs westward, tumbling in falls across the south-west end of Brooklyn hills, and passing near Framingham pond, runs north-east to Cambridge; hence winding round in a sinuous course, falls into Boston harbour. Taunton river rises in the Blue mountains, which lie back of Milton and Braintree, and forms the principal drain of the country lying east of these mountains: the river runs nearly a straight course south-west, under the foot of the mountains, to Fiverton on Narragansett bay. Concord river is formed by three branches, one issuing from Framingham pond, and the other two from the mountains about Marlborough. These streams united run north, and fall into the Merrimack river, a little below Pantucket falls.

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Mystic and Medford rivers run from north to south into Boston harbour. Ipswich river, rising in Wilmington in Middlesex county, runs east and then north-east into the Atlantic at Ipswich. Westfield river, from the north-west, empties into Connecticut river at Springfield. A little above, the Chicabee from the north-east empties into the same river. Deerfield river rises in Vermont, and running southwardly through Wilmington, Charlemont, and between Shelburne and Conway, enters and passes through a large tract of the finest meadow in the world. In these mountains it receives Green river from the mountains, which is about four rods wide: hence they pass on together, in a broad smooth stream, about three miles into Connecticut river.

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The only capes of note on the coast of Massachusetts are, cape Ann on the north side of Boston bay, and cape Cod on the south. The latter is the terminating hook of a promontory, which extends far into the sea, and is remarkable for having been the first land which was made by the first settlers of Plymouth on the American coast in 1620. In the barb of the hook, which is made by the cape, is cape Cod harbour. This promontory circumscribes Barnstable bay, and forms Barnstable county. This county is almost an island. The isthmus which connects it to the continent is between Sandwich bay on the north, and Buzzards bay on the south. The dis-

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tance between them is but six or seven miles. Herring brook almost crosses this neck or isthmus, so that a canal of about one mile only would insulate the county, and save several hundred miles dangerous navigation in passing from Newport to Boston, and be otherwise of immense advantage to trade. Such a canal has been *talked* of for more than an hundred years past. The eastern coast of this promontory is subject to continual changes. Large tracts of sand bank, in the course of 40 or 50 years, by the constant accumulation of sand and mud, occasioned by the coil and recoil of the tides, have been transformed into solid marsh land. The sand banks extend 200 miles into the sea, forming dangerous shoals.

The soil of Massachusetts is various. Towards the sea coast it is sandy and barren; in the interior it improves; and toward the western parts, where the country is hilly, it is best adapted for grazing. Wheat crops are not abundant, but it produces Indian corn, rye, barley, and oats. Vegetables and fruit come to great perfection, and are of much value in the state. Flax and some hemp are cultivated; and hops grow luxuriantly.

The climate is very much assimilated to that of Rhode island. Toward the west, the winters are more cold and severe than on the coast, but the weather is more steady, and the whole is healthy.

The principal mineral is iron, of which the state produces a great quantity. A copper mine has been discovered; and there are considerable quantities of clays and ochres, and slate, marble, and limestone.

Population.—In 1817, the population of this state was estimated at 564,892, which yields above 66 persons to a square mile.

Manners, &c.—The inhabitants of Massachusetts are described as being extremely cleanly, industrious, and contented. The females, in particular, appear to great advantage, having a glow of health, an air of cheerfulness, and a neatness of aspect, not to be surpassed. Though much attached to subjects of religion, they are in general liberal, and cultivate the benevolent affections.

Chief Towns.—Boston is an irregular built town, situated on a peninsula whose surface is broken by small hills; and,

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except where the isthmus appears in sight, seems completely
enviored by a beautiful river. It cannot boast of much uni-
formity and elegance; but, with respect to situation, it is ex-
tremely beautiful.

Boston bears considerable resemblance to an old city in
England. It is two miles in length, but of unequal breadth,
being 726 yards at the broadest part. It contains about 4000
dwelling-houses, many of which are built of wood, besides a
great number of store-houses.

From an elevated part of the town, the spectator enjoys a
succession of the most beautiful views that imagination can
conceive. Around him, as far as the eye can reach, are to be
seen towns, villages, country seats, rich farms, and pleasure
grounds, seated upon the summits of small hills, hanging on
the brows of gentle slopes, or reclining in the laps of spacious
valleys, whose shores are watered by a beautiful river, across
which are thrown several bridges and causeways.

That portion of the town called West Boston contains most
of the dwelling houses of the gentry and principal merchants.
A number of these elegant buildings of red brick have within
these few years been erected; and wide spacious streets, con-
sisting of handsome private houses of similar construction, are
yet forming throughout that end of the town. These streets
are mostly in the vicinity of Beacon hill, a rising ground of
considerable elevation, situate behind the new state-house. On
this hill a monumental pillar is erected, with a gilt eagle at the
top, bearing the arms of the United States. On the pedestal
of the column are inscriptions commemorating the most re-
markable events of the revolution.

The new state-house is, perhaps, more indebted to its situa-
tion for the handsome appearance it exhibits, than to any merit
of the building itself. It is built upon part of the rising ground
upon which Beacon hill is situated, and fronts the park, an
extensive common planted with a double row of trees along the
borders. The lower part of the building is constructed in a
plain and simple style of architecture, with red brick, and sur-
mounted by a large circular dome of the same materials, co-
loured yellow. The whole has a neat and ornamental appear-

ance; but if stone had been substituted for brick, it would then have been a structure worthy of admiration, and honourable to the people of Boston.

The park was formerly a large common, but has recently been enclosed, and the borders planted with trees. On the east side there has been for many years a mall, or walk, planted with a double row of large trees, somewhat resembling that in St. James's park, but scarcely half its length. It affords the inhabitants an excellent promenade in fine weather. At the bottom of the park is a branch of the harbour; and along the shore, to the westward, are several extensive rope-walks built upon piers. At high water, boats and barges can be admitted between the walks, which are all roofed in, and have large brick warehouses at the eastern end. Considerable quantities of excellent cordage are manufactured at these walks, and form an article of exportation to the other states. In the street next the mall, at the upper end of the park, there is a stand of hackney coaches, superior in every respect to vehicles of that description in London.

The other part of Boston, which may with propriety be called the *Old Town*, is the seat of trade and commerce, and contains numerous streets, lanes, and alleys, crowded with stores, shops, warehouses, wharfs, and piers; taverns, coffee-houses, and porter-houses; insurance offices, banks, and state buildings; churches, chapels, and meetings.

Of late years, considerable improvements have taken place in East Boston. Towards the harbour, an extensive range of lofty warehouses have been erected upon India wharf: they are built of red brick, with much neatness and uniformity. Offices for the merchants are below, and the upper part of the building is appropriated to the reception of goods. A short distance from these warehouses to the northward, is Long wharf, or Boston pier, which extends from the bottom of State-street, upwards of 1750 feet into the harbour. Its breadth is above 100 feet. On the north side of this immense wharf is a range of large warehouses, extending the whole length of the pier.

Along the water side there is a great number of other piers, which extend a considerable way into the harbour; these form

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as many open docks, or slips, which admit vessels of almost every size and draught of water up to the very doors of the houses. Viewing this sight from an eminence, it has a singular and beautiful effect; the crowded masts and rigging of the vessels appear in the midst of the streets, and the colours of all nations are seen flying over the tops of the houses.

Boston is well paved, and has excellent foot-paths of flag stones. The streets, which in the old town are generally narrow and irregularly laid out, are for the most part clean and in good order. The markets are situated near each other, close to the water side; and are supplied with every description of provisions in the greatest plenty, and at a moderate price. But they are crowded and confined by the surrounding buildings, and the narrow lanes in the vicinity. This, together with the number of shabby shops and ale-houses in the neighbourhood, gives to this part of the town an unseemly appearance, which is still further increased by the litter and confusion unavoidable in a market place.

The bridge connecting Boston and Charlestown is a surprising work. It is of wood, with a draw for the admission of vessels, and is 3483 feet in length, and 40 feet wide. On the same river, and not above two miles further up the country, is another bridge of this nature, 1503 feet long, and 42 in width. The principal manufactures of Boston are, sail-cloth, cordage, hats, wool and cotton cards, pot and pearl ashes, paper hangings, plate and common glass, loaf sugar, tobacco, chocolate, and an immense quantity of playing cards, on which they counterfeit the English figures with great exactness. Above forty distilleries are employed in making that detestable spirit called Yankee rum! which is used in preference to that agreeable and nutritious beverage, malt liquor, two breweries for which can barely be supported by this large town and its populous vicinity.

The population of Boston, according to the census of 1800, was 24,937; about three years after, it amounted to 28,000; and very lately was computed to be upwards of 35,000. The majority of the people are congregationalists; the remainder consist of episcopalians, baptists, quakers, universalists, Roman

catholics, and Sandemanians. They have twenty places of worship, of which *nine* belong to the congregationalists, and *four* to the episcopalians.

'Sundays are observed,' says a late traveller, 'with the strictest decorum; the town appears as if completely deserted; and scarcely a person is seen walking the streets, except in going to or coming from a place of worship. This strict observance of religious duties disposes a stranger to judge favourably of the moral character of the people; nor has he any reason to alter his opinion, until he hears of so many unfortunate females in the cities.'

The inhabitants are distinguished for their domestic habits, regularity of living, integrity in their dealings, hospitality to strangers, strict piety and devotion, and respect for the moral and social virtues; upon which depend the happiness and well being of a community.

Several daily and weekly newspapers, and a few magazines and reviews, are published in Boston. Like those of other towns, the newspapers are attached to the principles of the two parties which at present divide the people; and in their political animadversions, they are by no means tender of the character of their opponents. The fanatical spirit of this city seems gradually to subside; and Mr. Burke observes, after narrating the witchcraft delusion, 1692, in which so many innocent people perished by the bigotry of two clergymen called Encrease and Cotton Mather, 'that the people there are now grown somewhat like the rest of mankind in their manners, and have much abated of their persecuting spirit.' This city is even already ranked by some among the most pleasing and sociable in the United States.

The amount of tonnage owned by the port of Boston in 1810 was 149,121. The number of vessels that enter and clear out annually is immense, carrying on a trade to Europe, the East and West Indies, and China, besides a very extensive coasting trade. The exports annually from this port probably amount to upwards of 8,000,000 dollars. There are in Boston three incorporated banks, besides a branch of the United States' bank, whose joint capitals amount to upwards of

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There are a number of public societies in Boston, among
which may be mentioned the American Academy of Arts and
Sciences, Massachusetts Historical Society, Boston Library
Society, Agricultural Society, Mechanic Society, Marine So-
ciety, Charitable Fire Society, Humane Society, Medical So-
ciety, Dispensary, and the Female Asylum. Public education
is on an excellent footing; there are eight or nine public
schools, supported at the expence of the town, which are ac-
cessible to all the members of the community, free of expence;
they are managed by a committee of twenty-one gentlemen,
chosen annually, and are under good regulations. Besides
these, there are a number of private seminaries, at which all
the various branches of education are taught; and, upon the
whole, Boston may challenge a competition on this branch with
any city in Europe, Edinburgh in Scotland perhaps excepted.

Salem is, next to Boston, the largest town in Massachusetts,
and one of the earliest settled in the state. It is situated on a
peninsula formed by two branches of the sea, called North and
South rivers, and consists of about 1500 houses, and contained,
in 1800, 9547 inhabitants. The houses are built partly of
wood, and partly of brick; and many of them are uncommonly
elegant. The principal public buildings are a court-house,
five congregational churches, and one each for quakers and
episcopalians. Salem carries on a very extensive shipping
trade, more business being done here in that line than in any
town in the New England states, Boston excepted. There is
a ship-yard in Salem, and a considerable manufactory of sail-
cloth. A bank has been long established. The inhabitants
are said to be industrious and frugal, and the appearance of
the town indicates a considerable accumulation of wealth. Sa-
lem is remarkable as being the residence of Mr. Gray, reputed
the greatest ship-owner in America, having a vast number of
square-rigged vessels, many of which are in the India trade.

Cambridge is handsomely situated, and contains a univer-
sity, which is reputed the best literary institution in the United
States. It was established in 1638, and has now four large

buildings, with accommodations sufficient to contain upwards of 200 students, who attend it annually, and are instructed in all the various branches of human knowledge. The library is very extensive, and the philosophical apparatus is said to be the most elegant and complete of any in America. Five professors and four tutors discharge the duties of the university, which is generally well attended by students. The village of Cambridge contains about 1000 inhabitants. The houses are mostly built of wood. The public buildings are, besides the university, a court-house, an episcopal and a congregational church.

Worcester is a pretty place, and said to be one of the largest inland towns in the state. It is the capital of a county to which it gives the name, and is situated in a pleasant valley, mostly on one street, which is broad and handsome. The houses are generally of wood, painted white; and are in number about 400. The inhabitants amount to about 2500. The public buildings are, a court-house, jail, and two congregational churches. They have a pretty extensive inland trade at this place, and the printing business has been long established here by a Mr. Thomas, who is reputed to be the oldest printer in America. It is proposed to open an inland navigation between this place and Providence, distant about 40 miles; and if it should take place, it is supposed that it will be attended with great advantage.

Springfield is a handsome and thriving town, situated on the east side of the Connecticut river, 97 miles from Boston. It contains about 1500 inhabitants, who carry on a considerable inland trade, and have established a respectable manufactory of fire-arms. The public buildings are a court-house and a congregational church.

Brookfield is a beautiful town, situated on the Quebang river, and in a rich, fertile country, which also contains great quantities of iron ore. Of the remainder of the towns, the most important is *Marblehead*, a sea-port, containing upwards of 5000 inhabitants. *Newburyport* is a handsome sea-port, containing nearly 6000 inhabitants, and has several manufactories, and a large shipping trade. *Ipswich* contains 3000

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inhabitants; and *Concord*, a flourishing town on Concord river, is remarkable as being the place where the provincial congress held their deliberations during the war. *Taunton*, *Northampton*, *Stockbridge*, *Pittsfield*, and *Barnstable*, are all towns of considerable note. The state is intersected in every direction with good roads, and the bridges are numerous and very important.

Trade and Resources.—The amount of the internal revenues of Massachusetts in 1815 was 528,435 dollars, and the number of carriages taxed was 14,184. The value of lands and houses, as stated by the assessors, amounted to 143,765,560 dollars, which made the average value of land equal to 18 dollars per acre.

By the returns of the same year, the gross amount of duties on merchandise was 6,168,448 dollars. The registered tonnage employed in foreign trade was 199,659, and the enrolled tonnage employed in the coasting trade was 2995, besides vessels under 20 tons.

The greater part of the manufactures have already been enumerated in the account of Boston; but it may be noticed, that, in the interior, there is a vast variety of *domestic manufactures*; and several others upon a larger scale, particularly of woollen and cotton.

The exports of the state are, provisions, timber, ashes, flax-seed, bees' wax, fish, oil, saddlery, cabinet work, boots and shoes, nails, tow-cloth, iron utensils, glass, spirits, &c. The imports are, British manufactures, tea, wine, silks, spirits, coffee, cotton, &c. Commerce is pursued with an ardent spirit in the state; and it is said that Massachusetts owns more shipping than any other state in the Union. The state has very extensive fisheries, the product of which is annually of great value.

Religion.—The legislature of this state are empowered to require of the several towns to provide, at their own expence, for the performance of public worship, and to require the attendance of the subject on the same. But these affairs are managed by each religious sect in its own way, who are not suffered to interfere with the civil rights of their neighbours,

so that the sting is drawn out of the tail of the scorpion of religious discord. No sect is elevated above another; and all have reason to be thankful for the blessings they enjoy, in the protection of equal laws. The great body of the churches are established on the congregational plan.

Education, &c.—Dr. More says, 'According to the laws of this commonwealth, every town having 50 householders or upwards, is to be provided with one or more schoolmasters, to teach children and youth to read and write, and instruct them in the English language, arithmetic, orthography, and decent behaviour; and where any town has 200 families, there is also to be a grammar school set up therein, and some discreet person, well instructed in the Latin, Greek, and English languages, procured to keep the same, and be suitably paid by the inhabitants. The penalty for neglect of schools, in towns of 50 families, is 10*l*.; those of 100 families, 20*l*.; and of 150, 30*l*. Besides the college of Cambridge before mentioned, there are several respectably endowed academies. Those established at Newbury, Andover, Leicester, and Hingham, deserve particular mention.

Government.—The commonwealth of Massachusetts is divided into 14 counties, and subdivided into 355 townships. The whole country is divided into districts, of about six miles square each, and these are called towns, whether they be thickly settled or not. The arrangement of these towns is somewhat assimilated to the parishes in Scotland, having each a separate jurisdiction within itself, which regulates the affairs of religion and of education, and makes provision for the poor. They are also of great importance in the elections, which are conducted throughout the whole state in one day, the people voting in their respective towns, which has a tendency to prevent all bustle and confusion.

The state government is vested in a senate and house of representatives, styled the General Court; a governor, lieutenant-governor, and council. The senators are 40 in number, and are elected annually in districts; and the voters must be possessed of a freehold estate of the value of 3*l*. or any estate of the value of 60*l*. The representatives are elected annually,

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in townships: every corporate town containing 150 rateable polls elects one, those containing 375 elect two, those contain- ing 600 elect three, and so on, making 225 the number for every additional representative. The electors must be pos- sessed of the same property as for senators. The governor is styled *his excellency*, and must be possessed of a freehold of 1000*l*. He is elected annually by those qualified to vote for senators and representatives. The lieutenant-governor is styled *his honour*, and must have the same qualifications, and be elected in the same manner as the governor. The council consists of nine persons, chosen from the senators by joint bal- lot of the senators and representatives.

Islands.—Among the islands that border upon the extensive coast of this state are, Kappawak, Martha's Vineyard, and Nantucket. Kappawak, now Duke's county, and the neigh- bouring isles, were discovered as early as 1602, by Bartholo- mew Gosnold. In honour of queen Elizabeth, he called a cluster of small islands near the cape, Elizabeth isles. To an- other neighbouring island he gave the name of Martha's Vine- yard. Duke's county is 30 miles in length, and about four in breadth. It contains seven parishes. Edgarton, which in- cludes the island Chabaquidick, is the shire town. This little island is about half a mile from the harbour, and renders it very secure. This county is full of inhabitants, who, like their neighbours at Nantucket, subsist principally by fishing. They send three representatives to the general assembly, and one senator.

Nantucket lies south of cape Cod, about 30 miles from the coast, and is about 15 miles in length, and two or three in breadth. Before the revolutionary war, this small island had 65 ships, of 4875 tons, annually employed in the northern, and 85 ships of 10,200 tons, in the southern fishery. From 1787 to 1789, it had only 18 ships, of 1350 tons, in the north- ern, and 18 ships, of 2700 tons, in the southern fishery. For many years past, this fishery has been carried on from this island, and from New Bedford, a large commercial and flou- rishing town on the coast, in its neighbourhood, and has em-

ployed from 15,000 to 18,000 tons of shipping, principally in the Southern seas.

History.—In 1628, the first regular settlement was made in the Massachusetts near Salem by Mr. Endicott. Two years after this, 1600 people arrived from England, amongst whom were several persons of distinction. These were followed by several others, amongst which were Messrs. Cotton, Hooker, and Stone, three of the most famous pillars of the church. Mr. Cotton settled at Boston, and the other two at Cambridge. Mr. Hooker and 100 others removed in 1636, and settled at Hartford, on Connecticut river.

‘In 1636,’ says Mr. Morse, ‘Mrs. Hutchinson, a very extraordinary woman, who came to New England with Mr. Cotton, made great disturbances in the churches. Two capital errors with which she was charged were, “That the Holy Ghost dwells personally in a justified person; and that nothing of sanctification can help to evidence to believers their justification.” Disputes ran high about the covenant of works, and the covenant of grace, and involved both the civil and religious affairs of the colony in great confusion. The final result was, a synod was appointed to be held at Cambridge, in August, 1637, where were present both ministers and messengers of churches and magistrates, who, after three weeks’ disputing, condemned, as erroneous, above eighty points or opinions, said to have been maintained by some or other in the country. The result was signed by all the members but Mr. Cotton. In consequence of this, Mrs. Hutchinson and some of her principal followers were sentenced to banishment. She, with her husband and family, shortly after removed to Aquidnick, (Rhode island) where, in 1642, Mr. Hutchinson died. She being dissatisfied with the people or place, removed to the Dutch country, beyond New Haven; and the next year, she and all her family, being sixteen souls, were killed by the Indians, except one daughter, who was carried into captivity.’

The year 1637 was distinguished by the Pequot wars, in which were slain five or six hundred Indians, and the tribe almost wholly destroyed. This struck such terror into the

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Indians, that for forty years succeeding, they never openly
commenced hostilities with the English.

In 1640, the motives for emigration to New England ceased,
by a change in the affairs of England. The population of this
colony then amounted to 21,000; and the present inhabitants
are mostly the offspring of these original settlers.

The religious prejudices of the colonists were the source of
violent disputes and great cruelties. In 1648, they were in-
fected with the fear of witchcraft; and Margaret Jones, of
Charleston, was accused of having so malignant a quality, as
to cause vomiting, deafness, and violent pains by her touch.
She was accordingly tried, condemned, and executed. The
scrupulousness of the people appears to have arisen to its
height in 1649, and was indeed ridiculous. The custom of
wearing long hair, 'after the manner of ruffians and barbarous
Indians,' as they termed it, was deemed contrary to the word
of God, 'which says it is a shame for a man to wear long hair.'
This expression of the apostle Paul induced this pious people
to think this custom criminal in all ages and nations. In a
clergyman it was peculiarly offensive, as they were required in
an especial manner to go *patentibus auribus*, with open ears.
The use of tobacco was prohibited under a penalty; and the
smoke of it, in some manuscripts, was compared to the smoke
of the bottomless pit. The sickness frequently produced by
smoking tobacco was considered as a species of drunkenness,
and hence what we now term smoking, was then often called
'drinking tobacco.' At length, some of the clergy fell into the
habit of smoking, and tobacco, by an act of government, 'was
set at liberty.'

This was succeeded, 1656, by a persecution against the
quakers; and though none were actually put to death by
public execution, yet many were confined in prisons where
they died in consequence of the rigour of the law. King
Charles II. also, in a letter to the colony of Massachusetts,
approved of their severity. The quakers were undoubtedly
enthusiasts, as the following instances will testify. Thomas
Newhouse went into the meeting-house at Boston with a couple
of glass bottles, and broke them before the congregation, and

threatened, *Thus will the Lord break you in pieces.* Another time M. Brewster came in with her face smeared as black as a coal. Deborah Wilson went through the streets of Salem naked as she was born.' But the quakers were used with the most unjustifiable severity, which, from exciting sympathy, increased their numbers. These unhappy disturbances continued until the friends of the quakers in England interposed, and obtained an order from the king, September 9, 1661, requiring that a stop should be put to all capital or corporal punishments of his subjects called quakers. This order was prudently complied with, and the disturbances by degrees subsided.

In 1692, the colony obtained, after many disputes with the mother country, a new charter, which was productive of much good, particularly in diminishing the power of the clergy. During the same year, the spirit of insatiation respecting witchcraft was again revived in New England, and raged with uncommon violence. Several hundreds were accused, many were condemned, and some executed. Various have been the opinions respecting the delusion which occasioned this tragedy. Some pious people have believed there was something supernatural in it, and that it was not all the effect of fraud and imposture. Many are willing to suppose the accusers to have been under bodily disorders which affected their imaginations. It is very possible that the whole was a scene of fraud and imposture, began by young girls, who at first thought of nothing more than exciting pity and indulgence, and continued by adult persons, who were afraid of being accused themselves. The one and the other, rather than confess their fraud, suffered the lives of so many innocents to be taken away through the credulity of judges and juries. At last, the witch-finders grew bold, and accused some of the judges of exercising infernal arts. The rich were now struck with alarm, and the persecution ceased.

From 1675, when Philip's war began, to 1713, five or six thousand of the youth of the country had perished by the enemy, or by distempers contracted in the service of their country. The colonies, which usually doubled their inhabit-

ants in five and twenty years, had not at this time double the number which they had fifty years before.

In 1721, the small-pox made great havoc in Boston and the adjacent towns. Of 5889, who took it in Boston, 884 died. Inoculation was introduced upon this occasion, contrary, however, to the minds of the inhabitants in general. All orders of men, in a greater or less degree, condemned a practice which is now universally approved, and to which thousands owe the preservation of their lives.

In 1745, according to a proposal and plan of the governor of this colony, Louisburg was besieged and taken. The possession of this place appeared necessary for the security of the English fishery, and prevented an attack upon Nova Scotia, which the French had meditated and threatened.

The reduction of Louisburg by a British colony surprised Great Britain and France, and occasioned both powers to form important plans for the next year. Great Britain had in view the reduction of Canada, and the extirpation of the French from the northern continent. France, the recovery of Louisburg, the conquest of Nova Scotia, and the destruction of the English sea coast from Nova Scotia to Georgia. Great preparations were accordingly made by both monarchs. A very formidable French fleet sailed for the American coast; a British squadron was long expected to oppose them, and to protect the colonies; but expected in vain. The colonies were in immediate and imminent danger. Fortunately for them, the French fleet was rendered unfit to accomplish their design, by a violent storm, which damaged most of the ships so much, that they were obliged to return to France, or retire to the West Indies to refit.

After this, nothing material occurred in the colony until the general revolution, in which Massachusetts acquired a considerable share of glory.

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DISTRICT OF MAINE.

Situation and Extent. **THIS** district is bounded on the north-west by the high lands which separate the rivers which fall into the St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic ocean; on the east by the river St. Croix, and a line drawn due north from its source to the said high lands, which divides this territory from Nova Scotia; on the south-east by the Atlantic ocean; and on the west by New Hampshire. This division is of great extent, being about 250 miles long by about 192 broad, and contains 51,780 square miles.

Natural Geography.—St. Croix is a short and inconsiderable river, forming the eastern boundary of the United States. It falls into Passamaquoday bay. Penobscot river rises in some ponds in the heart of the country, and passing through several small lakes, it tumbles for near two miles over falls, which effectually prevent any further marine navigation. To these falls, which are about 50 miles from the sea, this river is navigable for vessels of 100 tons. It empties into Penobscot bay.

Kennebek river rises from a little pond in the high lands, in north lat. 45 deg. 20 min. Its general course is from north to south. It is navigable for vessels of 100 tons to Hallowell, 50 miles from Small point, at the mouth of the river.

Sagadahok, which, properly speaking, is but the main western branch of the Kennebek, rises in lat. 44 deg. 30 min. north-eastward of the White hills, in lake Umbagog. Penobscot river and another branch fall into this main stream from the east side of the White hills. Its course is south about 26 miles, then east-north-east 60, when it meets a second main stream from the north-east, 34 miles from its source. Hence the river runs into Merry Meeting bay; from thence, with the

waters of the Kennebek, which likewise fall into this bay, with several other small streams, it passes off to the sea, 16 miles, by the name of Kennebek, or Sagadahok river.

Saco river has two sources, which soon unite; and the river, keeping in a general south-eastern course for 60 or 70 miles, passes between Pepperillborough and Biddeford townships, into Saco bay, near Winter harbour. Marine navigation is stopped by Saco falls, seven or eight miles from the sea. At these falls, which are about 20 feet in height, are the greatest board-works in this part of the country. The river here is broken by small islands in such a manner as to afford a number of fine saw-mill seats. Besides these are a number of smaller rivers.

The sea coast is indented with innumerable bays. Those worth noticing are Penobscot bay, at the mouth of Penobscot river, which is long and capacious. Its east side is lined with a cluster of small islands. Casco bay is between cape Elizabeth and cape Small Point. It is 25 miles wide, and about 14 in length. It is a most beautiful bay, interspersed with small islands, and forms the entrance into Sagadahok. It has a sufficient depth of water for vessels of any burden. Wells bay lies between cape Neddik and cape Porpoise.

Agamemticus, a noted land-mark for sailors, is about eight miles from the sea, in lat. 43 deg. 16 min., and lies in the township of York, a few miles westward of Wells.

The heat in summer is intense, and the cold in winter equally extreme. All fresh water lakes, ponds, and rivers, are usually passable on ice, from Christmas until the middle of March. The longest day is fifteen hours and sixteen minutes, and the shortest eight hours and forty-four minutes. The climate is very healthful. Many of the inhabitants live ninety years.

On the high lands are oak in some places, but not plenty, maple, beech, and white birch. The white birch in this part of the country is unlike that which grows in other parts. It is a fine large tree, fit for many uses. Its bark, which is composed of a great number of thicknesses, is, when separated, smoother and softer than any paper. The clay lands produce

fir. The timber of this tree is unfit for use, but it yields the balsam which is so much admired.

Iron and bog-ore are found in many places, in great plenty, and works are erected to manufacture it into iron. There is a stone in Lebanon, which yields copperas and sulphur.

Population.—The population of this district in 1817 amounted to 318,647, which is ten persons to a square mile.

Manners, &c.—The inhabitants are a hardy, robust race; and being early taught the use of the musket, are expert marksmen, and form a very useful militia.

Chief Towns.—*Portland* is the most considerable town, and contains nearly 5000 inhabitants. It is situated on a peninsula, and has an excellent and capacious harbour. Ship-building and the fishery constitute the chief employment of the inhabitants. *York* is the second in importance, and is a place of considerable business. *Hallowell, Wiscasset, and Machias* are considerable places, to say nothing of *Passamaquoddy*, a sort of Land's End in Cornwall, or Johnny Groat's House, at the very extremity of the Union; and which sends out a considerable number of small vessels.

Trade and Resources.—The principal trade consists in lumber and fish, of which the inhabitants carry great quantities to the sea-ports of America, and to the West Indies. The manufactures are principally of the domestic kind.

Government.—The DISTRICT OF MAINE is politically connected with Massachusetts; but as the population is rapidly increasing, a separate government may probably be soon demanded.

History.—The first settlement made in the province of Maine was about the year 1680. Disputes with the proprietors and the Massachusetts court, and war with the Indians, harassed the colonists so much, that in 1675 all the settlements were in a manner broken up and destroyed. Several reinforcements arrived after this; but the whole country, down to the year 1702, exhibited a continued scene of killing, burning, and destroying. Even so late as the year 1748, persons were murdered and captivated by the Indians in many of the towns on the sea coast. Since that time, the inhabitants have lived in peace, and their numbers and property are rapidly augmenting.

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VERMONT.

Situation and Extent. VERMONT is bounded north, by
Canada; east, by Connecticut ri-
ver, which divides it from New Hampshire; south, by Mas-
achusetts; west, by New York. It is situated between 42
deg. 42 min. and 45 deg. north lat; and 3 deg. 38 min. and
5 deg. 27 min. east long. It is 166 miles long, and its great-
est breadth is 98 miles. Its area is about 10,000 square miles,
or 6,400,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—This state, on the east side of the
mountain, is watered by Paupanhoosak, Quechay, Weld's,
White, Black, and West rivers, which run from west to east
into Connecticut river; and west of the mountains by the river
Lamoil, over which is a natural stone bridge, seven or eight
rods in length, by Onion river and Otter creek, which empty
by one mouth into lake Champlain, 20 or 30 miles south of
St. John's. Otter creek is navigable for boats 50 miles. The
lands adjacent are of an excellent quality, and are annually
enriched by the overflowing of the water, occasioned by the
melting of the snow on the Green mountains.

A chain of high mountains, running north and south, divides
this state nearly in the centre between Connecticut river and
lake Champlain. The height of land is generally from 20 to
30 miles from the river, and about the same distance from the
New York line. The natural growth upon this mountain is
hemlock, pine, spruce, and evergreens; hence it has always a
green appearance, and on this account has obtained the de-
scriptive name of *Mons Ver*, Green mountain. On some high
parts of this mountain, snow lies till May, and sometimes till
June.

The country is generally hilly, but not rocky. It is finely
watered, and affords the best of pasturage for cattle. On the

banks of the lakes, rivers, and rivulets, are interspersed many fine tracts of rich land. The heavy growth of timber, which is common throughout the state, evince the strength and fertility of the soil. Elm, black birch, maple, ash, and bass-wood, grow in the moist low ground; and the banks of the rivers are timbered principally with white pine, intermingled with vales of beech, elm, and white oak. The inhabitants cultivate wheat, rye, barley, oats, Indian corn, &c. The corn, however, is frequently cut off by the early frosts, especially on the mountains and hills. That which grows on the banks of the river is not so frequently injured. Flax is raised in considerable quantities, and the soil is good for hemp. Potatoes, pumpkins, and garden roots and vegetables, grow here in great plenty. Large quantities of sugar, of a good quality and flavour, are made from the sugar maple.

Iron is found in abundance throughout the state. Lead, copperas, flint, and vitriol have been found; and the west side of the state abounds with marble.

This state is extremely healthy. Snow begins to fall commonly in the beginning of November, and is generally gone by the middle of April. During this season, the inhabitants usually enjoy a serene sky, and a keen, cold air. The ground is seldom frozen to any great depth, being covered with a great body of snow before the severe frosts begin. In the spring, the snow, in common, is gradually dissolved by the warm influences of the sun. In this way the earth is enriched and moistened, and spring advances with surprising quickness.

Population.—The population of Vermont in 1817 amounted to 236,450, which is above 20 persons to a square mile. Although it is off the sea coast, far from a market, and without any populous towns, yet its inhabitants have nearly doubled within the last 20 years.

Manners.—Most of the inhabitants of this state consist of emigrants from Massachusetts and Connecticut, except one settlement formed by people from Scotland. The Vermonters are represented as being hardy, robust, full-featured, and florid in their complexions: as they are mostly all agriculturalists or mechanics, they are independent in their sentiments; and their

wants being mostly supplied among themselves, they are not subject to great vicissitudes of fortune, and are generally wealthy in proportion as they are industrious.

Chief Towns.—Bennington is the principal town in Vermont. It is situated in the south-west corner of the state; near the foot of the Green mountain. Its public buildings are a church for congregationalists, a court-house, and jail. It has a number of elegant houses, and is a flourishing town. Near the centre of the town is mount Anthony, which rises very high in the form of a sugar-loaf. The assembly commonly hold their sessions at Windsor.

Montpellier is the seat of government, and contains 1500 inhabitants; Bennington, 2250; Windsor, 2200; Rutland, 2130; Newbury, 2000; Manchester, 2000; Newfane, 1700; St. Albans, 1400; Middlebury, 1260; Burlington, 1100; St. Hero, 1000; Craftsbury, 1000; Brunswick, 1000.

Trade and Resources.—The chief business of this state is agriculture; and great quantities of beef, pork, butter, cheese, and wool, are raised for market. The principal manufactures are of a domestic kind, consisting of wool and flax for family use. Iron is manufactured, and also a considerable quantity of pot and pearl ashes.

The principal external trade is with Canada, which, during the late war with Great Britain, was carried on to a great extent. The state has likewise a convenient channel of commerce, through the medium of its rivers, with New York, Hartford, and Boston.

The value of lands and houses in this state, as revised by the assessors in 1815, was 32,461,120 dollars; and the average value of land was 6 dollars 40 cents. In the same year, the gross amount of the customs was 245,195 dollars.

Government.—The state is divided into twelve counties, and 245 townships of six miles square. In every township is a reserve of two rights of land, of 350 acres each; one to be appropriated for the support of public schools, the other to be given in fee to the first minister who settles in the township. A part of the townships were granted by the governor of New Hampshire, and the other part by that of Vermont. In those

townships granted by the former, a right of land is reserved for the support of the gospel in foreign parts; in those granted by the latter, a college right, and a right for the support of county grammar schools, are reserved. In these reservations, liberal provision is made for the support of the gospel, and for the promotion of common and collegiate education.

The territory composing Vermont was long claimed by the adjoining states of New Hampshire and New York; but the inhabitants wished it to become an independent state in 1777, and the *Green mountain boys*, as they were called, took a very active part in the war of the revolution; but they did not succeed in establishing their claim of independence till 1791, when they were admitted, a 14th state, into the Union. The constitution was adopted in 1793, and Vermont now sends two senators and four representatives to congress.

The declaration of rights is nearly the same as that of New Hampshire; but they have an article declaring that no male born in the country, or brought over sea, can be held in bondage after 21, and no female after 18 years of age.

The plan of government is legislative, executive, and judiciary. The legislative power is vested in representatives, chosen annually; every free male of 21 years and upwards, who pays taxes, having a vote. The executive is vested in a governor, lieutenant-governor, and council of twelve, chosen annually, in like manner: and in order 'that the freedom of the commonwealth may be kept inviolate for ever,' a council of censors is chosen once in seven years, whose duty it is to see that the constitution has been preserved inviolate; whether the taxes have been paid, and the public monies properly disposed of; whether the public servants have done their duty, and the laws been duly executed: and they are empowered, if they judge it necessary, to call a convention, to meet two years after their sitting, to revise and amend the constitution.

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RHODE ISLAND.

Situation and Extent. RHODE ISLAND is bounded on the north and east by the commonwealth of Massachusetts; on the south by the Atlantic; and on the west by Connecticut. These limits comprehend what has been called Rhode island and Providence plantations. It is situated between 41 deg. 22 min. and 42 deg. north lat., and 5 deg. and 5. deg. 50 min. east long., being 45 miles in length, and 43 in breadth, and contains 1700 square miles, or 1,088,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—Providence and Taunton rivers both fall into Narragansett bay, the former on the west, the latter on the east side of Rhode island. Providence river rises in Massachusetts, and is navigable as far as Providence, 30 miles from the sea. One branch of Taunton river proceeds from Winisimoket ponds; the other rises within about a mile of Charles river. In its course, southerly, it passes by the town of Taunton, from which it takes its name. It is navigable for small vessels to Taunton. Common tides rise about four feet.

Narragansett bay is 33 miles in length from south to north, and towards Newport about 12 miles in breadth, including the islands which it embosoms, of which the principal are, Rhode island, Canonicut, Prudence, Patience, Hope, Dyer's, and Hog island. It receives the waters of Providence, Taunton, and Patuxet rivers; and contains five harbours, besides those of Newport and Providence. Its banks are clad with settlements, and there are a number of pretty little towns, the view of which from the water has a fine effect.

In the town of Bristol is mount Hope, which is remarkable only on account of its having been the seat of king Philip, and the place where he was killed.

The face of the country is agreeably uneven, some places being hilly, but not mountainous. It is, generally speaking, a country for pasture and not for grain. It, however, produces corn, rye, barley, oats, and flax, and culinary plants and roots in great variety and abundance. Its natural growth is the same as in the other New England states. The western and north-western parts of the state are but thinly inhabited, and are barren and rocky. In the Narragansett country, the land is fine for grazing. The people are generally farmers, and raise great numbers of the finest and largest neat cattle in America. They keep large dairies, and make butter and cheese of the best quality, and in large quantities, for exportation. Narragansett is famed for an excellent breed of pacing horses. They are strong, and remarkable for their speed, and for their excellency in enduring the fatigues of a long journey.

Iron ore is found in great plenty, and the state abounds with limestone and marble. Some copper ore and leadstone have also been found; and there are several mineral springs, but of no great importance.

The climate is salubrious and healthy; but the winters are sometimes long and severe, commencing in November, and ending in March or April. There is a very short spring, but the summer and autumn are delightful. Volney remarks on this subject, 'Were I obliged to select the most favourable spot in America as the place of my abode, my choice would fall upon the southern point of Rhode island.'

Population.—The population of Rhode island in 1817 amounted to 98,721, which is 98 persons to a square mile.

Manners.—The inhabitants of this state are generally proprietors of the farms they cultivate, and are therefore independent. The inhabitants of the towns are merchants, manufacturers, mechanics, seamen, and fishermen. The lands are not entailed, and hence there are no aristocracy, but independence is easily attained by industry. The women are said to be very polite and beautiful; and the state being esteemed the *Eden* of America, is much resorted to by strangers, which gives a peculiar openness and urbanity to their manners.

There are still a few Indians scattered through the country; but their ill-constructed and miserable huts exhibit but a small remove towards civilization.

Chief Towns.—*Newport* is situated on the south-west point of Rhode island, in lat. 41 deg. 29 min. It extends about a mile from north to south, along Narragansett bay, and is about one-third of a mile in breadth, rising, as it proceeds from the water, by a considerable ascent. The streets cross one another at right angles, and are all well paved. The number of inhabitants, by the census of 1810, was 10,071, and the number of houses is about 1600, chiefly built of wood, and painted white. The public buildings are, a state-house, academy, public library, four baptist churches, two for congregationalists, and one each for episcopalians, quakers, Moravians, and Jews.

The situation of this city is beautiful, and the salubrity of the climate is proverbial, in consequence of which it becomes a great resort for strangers, particularly from the southern states, during the summer season. It is also noted for the excellent supply of provisions in its market, particularly of fish, of which there is said to be 50 or 60 different kinds. The packets which ply between this place and New York, and Providence, are of great service to the city and to the public. They are generally under excellent regulations, and afford better accommodations and travelling at a cheaper rate than is to be found in most places of the world. The distance from hence to New York is about 200 miles, which is often sailed in little more than 30 hours; and the fare, including bed and provisions, is only nine dollars. From hence to Providence, 80 miles, it is one dollar.

Newport is a favourable situation for commerce, and has one of the most safe and commodious harbours in the world. On the opposite side of the harbour is Goat island, on which there is a fort and military station. The trade of Newport is principally in shipping; and there is a manufactory of cotton, and one of duck, both of which are said to be in a thriving state.

Providence, the capital of Rhode island, is beautifully situated on the head of Narragansett bay, and is divided into two parts by the Providence river, over which there is a good

bridge, with a draw in it, to allow vessels to pass. The west side of the town is low, but the east side rises, by a rapid ascent, to a considerable elevation. The number of inhabitants, in 1815, was 11,600, and they are rapidly increasing.

'In its appearance,' says a late English traveller, 'it combined the attractions of Southampton and Doncaster. There are manufactories in the neighbourhood. All places of public worship are, in the state of New York, called churches; not, as with our dissenters, chapels. In these states, the old English distinction of "church," and "meeting-house," continues. Here is an excellent market-house, a *workhouse*, four or five public schools, an university with a tolerable library, a public library, and an hospital. Several of the churches are very handsome: they, as well as many private houses, are built of wood, painted white, with green Venetian shutters, presenting a neat elegance very superior to our smoky brick buildings. I have not seen a town in Europe or America, which bore the appearance of general prosperity equal to Providence. Ship and house-builders were fully employed, as indeed were all classes of mechanics. The residents are native Americans.'

The college is situated on the hill, and commanding a fine view of the town, bay, shipping, and country for many miles round. The building is of brick, with a slated roof, 150 feet long, 46 wide, and four stories high; and contains lodgings for upwards of 100 students. It has a valuable philosophical apparatus, and a library containing upwards of 8000 volumes. Providence has a pretty extensive shipping trade, and sends very large ships to the East Indies and other distant parts of the world.

The other principal towns are, *South Kingston*, situated on the west side of Narragansett bay, nearly opposite Newport, and contains 8000 inhabitants. *Bristol* is pleasantly situated on the bay, about half way between Providence and Newport, and contains 1678 inhabitants. It has a little shipping trade. *Warren* is a flourishing little town, containing about 1600 inhabitants. It is on the west side of the bay, on the Warren river, and carries on a brisk coasting and foreign trade. *Little Compton*, *East Greenwich*, and *Compton*, are also growing

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towns. The state is supplied with good roads and bridges, some of which have been constructed on an ingenious plan, and at great expence. No canals have yet been made, but several are projected.

Trade and Resources.—This state is very favourably situated for commerce, of which it has a large share. The exports are grain, flax-seed, lumber, horses, cattle, beef, pork, fish, poultry, onions, butter, cheese, spirits, and cotton and linen goods. The imports are European and India manufactures, West India produce, and logwood.

The manufactures are cotton and linen goods, bar and sheet iron, steel, nails, anchors and other iron work for shipping, sail-cloth, paper, rum, &c. The cotton manufacture is extending; but it is yet in its infancy, and, being subject to a competition with the organized manufactures of Britain, it must be attended with a considerable degree of inconvenience, and perhaps of risk.

The writer above mentioned says, 'At Pautucket, four miles from Providence, are 18 cotton manufactories; six of which are on a large scale. They are not the property of individuals, but of companies. I visited three of these. They had excellent machinery; not more than one half of which was in operation. Children from six to ten years of age, of both sexes, are paid 6s. 9d. per week; ditto eleven to sixteen, 10s. per week; women, 12s.; men, 27s. to 31s. 6d. Very few of the latter are employed. Several of the manufactories of this place are situated on a fine fall of water, 50 feet in length, and passing through several chasms in a rock which extends across the river.'

The value of houses and lands in Rhode island, as equalized by the assessors in 1815, was 20,907,766 dollars. The value of land was estimated at 39 dollars an acre. The gross amount of the duties of merchandise, at the same time, was 287,167 dollar. The registered tonnage in foreign trade was 29,019, and the tonnage employed in the coasting trade 599.

Education.—The state of education is said to be considerably behind that of the other New England states, but is improving. The chief seminary is the college at Providence,

already mentioned; and there is an academy at Newport, under good regulations, besides various seminaries throughout the state.

Religion.—There is no distinction made on account of religious opinions; but every man worships God in any way his conscience dictates, without interfering with his civil rights. There are several benevolent and useful societies in the state, among which may be noticed one 'for the abolition of the slave-trade, and for the improvement of the African race.'

Government.—The state is divided into five counties and 30 townships. The legislature consists of a governor, deputy governor, ten senators, and a representative from each township. They are chosen by the people twice every year, and they hold two sessions annually.

History.—The men who fled from their native homes to Massachusetts, to avoid persecution for their religious sentiments, were no sooner settled than they began to imitate their tyrants, by enforcing an uniformity of opinions. This induced Mr. Roger Williams, a minister, and twenty others to fly from their Christian brethren, and to seek an asylum amongst the more merciful Indians in Rhode island, about the year 1635. These fugitives built a village, which they called PROVIDENCE, and were soon joined by many others, particularly quakers and baptists. But, being destitute of a patent, or any legal authority, Mr. Williams went to England as agent in 1643, and by the assistance of Sir Henry Vane, jun. obtained of the earl of Warwick (then governor and admiral of all the plantations) and his council, 'a free and absolute charter of civil incorporation, by the name of the incorporation of Providence plantations in Narragansett bay.' This lasted until the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663, by which the incorporation was styled, 'The English colony of Rhode island and Providence plantations in New England.'

The free and liberal toleration established in this island soon brought it into a highly flourishing state. The inhabitants, during the revolution, acted with great spirit, and produced the second general in the field.

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CONNECTICUT.

Situation and Extent. **THIS** state is bounded on the north by Massachusetts; on the east by Rhode island; on the south by the sound, which divides it from Long island; and on the west by the state of New York. It is situated between 41 and 42 deg. north lat., and 3 deg. 30 min. and 5 deg. east long. Its greatest length is 63 miles; and its greatest breadth 72. Its area is 4500 square miles, or 2,880,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—The principal rivers in this state are, Connecticut, Housatonic, the Thames, and their branches. One branch of the Housatonic passes through a number of pleasant towns, and empties into the sound between Stratford and Milford. It is navigable twelve miles to Derby. A bar of shells at its mouth obstructs its navigation for large vessels. In this river, between Salisbury and Canaan, is a cataract, where the water of the whole river, which is 150 yards wide, falls about 60 feet perpendicularly, in a perfectly white sheet. A copious mist arises, in which floating rainbows are seen in various places at the same time, exhibiting a scene exceedingly grand and beautiful.

The Thames empties into Long island sound at New London. It is navigable 14 miles to Norwich landing. Here it loses its name, and branches into Shetucket on the east, and Norwich or Little river on the west. Little river, about a mile from its mouth, has a remarkable and very romantic cataract. A rock, ten or twelve feet in perpendicular height, extends quite across the channel of the river. Over this the whole river pitches, in one entire sheet, upon a bed of rocks below. Here the river is compressed into a very narrow channel between two craggy cliffs, one of which towers to a considerable height. The channel descends gradually, is very crooked, and covered with pointed rocks. Upon these the

water swiftly tumbles, foaming with the most violent agitation, 15 or 20 rods, into a broad basin which spreads before it. At the bottom of the perpendicular falls, the rocks are curiously excavated by the constant pouring of the water. Some of the cavities, which are all of a circular form, are five or six feet deep. The smoothness of the water above its descent; the regularity and beauty of the perpendicular fall; the tremendous roughness of the other; and the craggy, towering cliff which impends the whole, present to the view of the spectator a scene indescribably delightful and majestic. On this river are some of the finest situations for mill seats in New England, and those immediately below the falls, occupied by Lathrop's mills, are perhaps not exceeded by any in the world. Across the mouth of this river is a broad, commodious bridge, in the form of a wharf, built at a great expence.

Shetucket river, the other branch of the Thames, tumbles over many falls, and affords a vast number of mill seats. This river is fed by numberless brooks from every part of the adjacent country. At the mouth of Shetucket is a bridge of timber, 124 feet in length, supported at each end by pillars, and kept up in the middle by braces on the top, in the nature of an arch.

Naugatuk, Farmington, Mill, and West river, and North Haven river, are too small to merit a particular description.

The face of the country is agreeably uneven. To the south the coast extends along the sound the whole length of the state, and has many fine inlets, which are highly advantageous to commerce. Towards the north-west the country swells out into high, broken, hilly lands, but there are no mountains. This hilly country is said to be very romantic. The state is remarkably well watered, abounding in small streams.

The soil is various, some parts being poor and sandy, and some very fertile; generally speaking, there is a great deal of good land, and the state is remarkably well calculated for grazing.

The climate is subject to great and sudden changes, passing to the extremes of heat and cold; but it is very healthy, and the state abounds with remarkable instances of longevity.

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Iron ore is found in the state in great abundance; and lead, copper, and zinc, have also been discovered, though in no great quantities. Pit-coal has been found, but not in sufficient quantity to induce the inhabitants to dig for it. There are a number of mineral springs in the state: the most important is in Liebfeld county, which is highly impregnated with carbonic acid gas and sulphuretted hydrogen gas, and is said to be very useful in curing various diseases, particularly dyspepsia, rheumatism, and those of the cutaneous kind.

Population.—The number of the inhabitants in this state in 1817 was 349,568, which is nearly 78 persons to a square mile.

Manners.—The population of Connecticut consists of farmers, mechanics, manufacturers, ministers of religion, instructors of youth, doctors of medicine, and lawyers. There are no idle people to be seen, although it is said that too many are engaged in the learned professions; and Connecticut sends out a full proportion of luminaries annually, to enlighten other states.

The absence of want and poverty in this state, clearly evinces the evils that arise from the feudal system, and the law of primogeniture. It contains no overgrown estates, and exhibits no revolting scenes of wretchedness and misery. The cultivators are a hardy, industrious race, whose labour is rewarded in peace, and health, and sweet content.

It must, however, be confessed, that they have created evils which tend to embitter the happiness which a superficial observer might conclude they possessed. The clergy are numerous, and constitute a kind of selfish, overbearing aristocracy; while their rage for theological disputation generates the worst passions amongst their flocks. This infatuation is, however, rapidly abating; but it has probably been the origin of that litigious disposition, which rages here as well as in the states of Massachusetts and Rhode island. Every trivial dispute must be settled according to law; which renders it an inviting profession.

Chief Towns.—Hartford is a handsome city, the capital of Connecticut, and is, alternately with Newhaven, the seat of legislation for the state. It is situated on Connecticut river, at the head of sloop navigation, 50 miles above Long island.

sound. It is regularly laid out, the streets crossing one another at right angles; but they are not paved. The city consists of about 400 houses, and contains between 8 and 1000 inhabitants. The public buildings are, the state-house, an elegant edifice, two congregational churches, and one episcopal church. The citizens carry on an active commerce, in all the products of the state, to the southern states and the West Indies; and they have a large share of country trade. Considerable manufactures are carried on with spirit, and are increasing. The markets are well supplied with wholesome provisions, which are sold at reasonable rates.

Newhaven is a handsome city. The surrounding country is very fine, and the situation pleasant, and favourable for commerce. It is built on a considerable bay, on Long island sound, and covers part of a pretty extensive plain, having a river on each side of it. The streets cross one another at right angles, and there is a square in the middle, round which are the public buildings, which have a very handsome appearance. They are, the colleges, state-house, three congregational, and one episcopal church. The college is esteemed one of the best seminaries in the United States, and, by the citizens of Newhaven, is considered *the very best*. The city contains nearly 6000 inhabitants, who carry on a very active trade with New York and the West Indies; and they have established considerable manufactures, which are said to be in a thriving state.

There are three other incorporated cities, viz. *New London*, *Norwich*, and *Middletown*. *New London* is handsomely situated on the Thames, and has an excellent harbour and extensive trade. It contains upwards of 3000 inhabitants, and has a bank, and three houses for public worship. *Norwich* is on the same river, at the head of navigation, and has numerous manufactures and an extensive trade. It contains nearly 8000 inhabitants, and has a court-house, a bank, an insurance company, an academy, and three places for public worship. *Middletown*, situated on Connecticut river, 15 miles below Hartford, contains about 2000 inhabitants, and carries on a considerable trade. There is a bank, an insurance company, a court-house, and two places for public worship in the city. *Litchfield* is a

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fine town, containing upwards of 4000 people. It is beauti- fully situated in an elevated part of the state, and has a court- house, meeting-house, and academy. *Wethersfield* is the oldest town in the state, and is remarkable for the culture of onions. The other villages are numerous, the whole state being studded with them, containing from 500 to 1500 or 2000 inhabitants; among others may be mentioned *Danbury*, *Windham*, *Had- dam*, and *Tolland*. The houses are generally built of wood; on a handsome plan, and are painted white; which gives the country an air of great cleanliness and neatness. This enter- prising little state first set the example of making turnpike roads in New England; and these and other good roads are so abundant, that travelling is facilitated in all directions. There are a number of bridges in the state, some of them constructed at great expence, which are of great utility.

Education.—Education is upon an excellent footing, and the school fund is more ample than that of any other state. The college at *Yale*, which is named *Yale college*, was found- ed in 1700. The present college edifice, which is of brick, was built in 1760, and is 100 feet long, and 40 feet wide, three stories high, and contains 92 chambers, and 64 studies, conve- nient for the reception of 100 students. The college chapel, which is also of brick, was built in 1761, being 50 feet by 40, with a steeple 125 feet high. In this building is the public library and the philosophical apparatus. The college museum, to which additions are constantly making, contains some great natural curiosities.

Academies have been established at *Greenfield*, *Plainfield*, *Canterbury*, *Norwich*, *Windham*, and *Pomfret*. The law directs that a grammar school shall be kept in every county town throughout the state; but the great, popular, and per- manent advantage on this branch, arises from the establishment of schools in every township, being an arrangement similar to the parish schools in Scotland, and which produced similar ef- fects; a general diffusion of knowledge, 'steady habits,' and sobriety of manners.

Trade and Resources.—The farmers of Connecticut and their families are generally dressed in cloth of their manufac-

ture, which is substantial and good; and there are considerable and very important manufactures, on a larger scale, throughout the state, viz. woollens, linens, cottons, leather of every description, hats, stockings, paper, wire, bells, soap, candles, oil, clocks and watches, earthen and stone ware, chains, harness, &c.

The state has a very considerable coasting and foreign trade. The exports are principally to the West India islands, consisting of live stock, timber, grain, fruit, fish, and provisions. The imports consist of manufactured piece goods of the finer kinds, wines, and groceries.

The value of houses and lands, according to the return of the assessors in 1815, amounted to 88,534,871 dollars; the land being valued at 84 dollars per acre. The duties on merchandise was 247,288 dollars. There was employed in foreign trade 93,478 tons, and in the coasting trade 1075.

Religion.—In religion, the form of church government is generally congregational or presbyterian; but every other form may be freely exercised without molestation, so it is not in direct variance with the general opinion. The episcopalians are respectable; and the baptists are numerous. There is scarcely any other sect worth mentioning.

Government.—The form of government is derived from the ancient charter, by which the legislative authority is vested in a governor, deputy governor, twelve assistants or counselors, and the representatives of the people, styled the General Assembly. They are divided into two branches, of which the governor, deputy governor, and assistants form one; and the representatives the other: and no law can pass without the concurrence of both. The governor and assistants are chosen annually; and the representatives, who must not exceed two for each town, are chosen twice each year. The suffrage is universal, every freeman who is of age having a vote, without regard to property.

History.—The first grant of Connecticut was made by the Plymouth council, to the earl of Warwick, in 1630, and confirmed by his majesty in council the same year. The year following, the earl assigned this grant to lord Say and Seal,

and there are considerable quantities of sugar, cotton, leather of various kinds, paper, wire, bells, soap, earthen and stone ware,

and foreign trade. The Dutch traders came to Hartford, and built a house which they called the *Hirce of Good Hope*, and erected a small fort, in which they planted two cannon. The remains of this settlement are still visible on the bank of Connecticut river.

According to the return of 1790, the population of the state was 88,534,971 dollars, the

revenue. The duties on merchandise were employed in foreign trade 1675.

The church government is Presbyterian; but every other denomination is tolerated. The Episcopalians are numerous. There is no state religion.

The government is derived from the people. The authority is vested in the General Assembly, styled the General Assembly, of which the members form one; and the members can pass without the aid of assistants are chosen for one year. The suffrage is universal, every male having a vote, without

restriction. The first constitution was made by the convention, in 1690, and confirmed in the same year. The year 1790, lord Say and Seal,

and nine others. No English settlements were attempted in Connecticut until the year 1633, when a number of Indian traders, having purchased of two principal sachems a tract of land at the mouth of Little river in Windsor, built a house and fortified it, and ever after maintained their right of soil upon the river.

The same year, a little before the arrival of the English, a company of Dutch traders came to Hartford, and built a house which they called the *Hirce of Good Hope*, and erected a small fort, in which they planted two cannon. The remains of this settlement are still visible on the bank of Connecticut river. This was the only settlement of the Dutch in Connecticut in those ancient times.

In 1634, lord Say and Seal, &c. sent over a small number of men, who built a fort at Saybrook, and held a treaty with the Pequot Indians, who, in a formal manner, gave to the English their right to Connecticut river and the adjacent country. In the year following, a number of persons came and settled in Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windsor.

In the year 1637, the colonists took the field against the Indians. All the males of a whole tribe were killed, except a few that escaped; and the women and children were sent to Bermuda, and sold for slaves. Two years after, the first church was formed at Newhaven, the members of which had all things in common, and formed themselves into a civil court, which decided all things according to the law of Moses.

The history of Connecticut exhibits the same intolerance, ignorance, and mistaken zeal, as that of their neighbours. They prohibited the use of tobacco, and persecuted the quakers. In 1662, this state obtained a charter from Charles II.; but so ignorant were the Europeans of geography, that the patents often extended they knew not where; and the people of Connecticut construed their charter literally, and passing over New York, made purchases of land from the Indians on the Delaware river, within their supposed limits, which they conceived extended to the South sea. But after many disputes, this state ceded to congress all their lands west of Pennsylvania, except a reserve of 20 miles square.

In 1672, the laws of the state were revised, printed, and every family was obliged to purchase a copy. They have since been judiciously revised and simplified. During the revolution, the people were very active and suffered greatly.

NEW YORK.

Situation and Extent. THIS interesting state is situated between 40 deg. 33 min. and 45 deg. north lat., and 3 deg. 43 min. east, and 2 deg. 43 min. west long.; its extreme length, from east to west, being 340, and extreme breadth, from north to south, 317 miles; but it is very irregular. The square contents amount to about 54,000 square miles, or 34,560,000 acres. This flourishing state is larger than both England and Wales, the extent of which is computed at 49,450 square miles.

New York is bounded on the south-east by the Atlantic ocean; on the east by Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Vermont; on the north by the 45th degree of latitude, which divides it from Canada; on the north-west by the river Iroquois, or St. Lawrence, and the lakes Ontario and Erie; and on the south-west and south by Pennsylvania and New Jersey.

Natural Geography.—There is a vast variety in the face of the country. From the highlands, about 50 miles above New York, the state is hilly, in many places mountainous; and the hills continue to the extremity of the state northward, and to Ulster westward: from thence to its western extremity, nearly 300 miles, there is a most elegant country, rich and well watered, having spurs of the Alleghany mountains on the one side, and on the other the lakes Ontario and Erie, two of the finest sheets of water in the world. The lakes are so numerous, and having been before described, the bare mention of

the names of the most important must suffice in this place. Besides the large lakes, there are lake Champlain, lake George, Oneida, Onondago, Skeneateles, Oswego, Cayuga, Seneca, Canandaigua, and Chateaugue. The principal rivers are the Hudson, the Mohawk, the Oneida, and the Genesee. The head waters of the Alleghany, Susquehanna, and Delaware rivers, are also in the southern part of this state.

The state abounds with iron ore and lead; copper and zinc have been found in various places. Silver has been found, but in no great quantity. Marble abounds, and is of an excellent quality. Freestone and slate are in plenty. Plaster of Paris is found in great variety, and is used with good effect as manure. Isinglass and sulphur are common in many places: and coal has also been found, but in no great quantity. The salt springs at Onondago are very strong, and produce an immense quantity of that useful article. There are many sulphur springs, and several air springs, which last are probably the gas arising from the combustion of pit coal: there is a medicinal spring at Lebanon, which affords a pleasant bath, at the temperature of 72 deg., and is much frequented; but the most remarkable springs in this state, or indeed in the United States, are those of Ballston and Saratoga. These waters are highly medicinal, and are of great efficacy in dyspepsia and other complaints; and are much frequented in the summer season.

The soil, in such an extent of country, must be various. The southern and eastern part is a dry gravel, mixed with loam, and is not very rich; the mountainous part is pretty well adapted for grazing, and there are rich valleys on the rivers. The whole of the northern and western part is rich and fertile, except a small portion bordering on the state of Pennsylvania, which, however, is interspersed with fertile lands.

The climate is various. In that part which lies to the south of the highlands, it is remarkably changeable; it experiences all the vicissitudes of heat and cold, and sometimes a change of 30 degrees in the course of 24 hours. Among the mountains, and along Lake Champlain, towards Canada, the winters

are long and severe, and the summers are sometimes very sultry and hot. In the western district, the climate is more temperate, and the winters are subject to a good deal of rain; but the whole country is healthy, the neighbourhood of ponds and undrained morasses excepted. The winter commences about Christmas, and ends with February; but March and April are sometimes cold months.

Population.—The total population of this state in 1817 amounted to 1,486,739, which is 27 persons to a square mile. In 1790, the population was only 840,120, so that in 27 years it has been more than quadrupled.

Manners and Customs.—The society in this state is very much mixed. To the west the majority are New-Englanders; while the city and southern part of the state, and along the Hudson and Mohawk rivers, are mostly of Dutch, Scottish, and Irish extraction. Kalm, in describing the Dutch in this state, observes, that this people 'are every where well known for their avarice and selfishness. They are inhospitable, and never disposed to oblige beyond a prospect of interest.' An American writer on this passage says, 'The design of the Dutch, in coming to this country, was not to improve their minds, nor to erect public seminaries of science, but to increase their fortunes. Thus did their darling passion, and the unhappy circumstance of their situation, debar them from eminence, or even progress, in the field of science. A want of schools and seminaries furnished with able instructors of their own nation; their ignorance of the English language; and their national pride, have all conspired to keep them in their native ignorance of every mental improvement. This will account for many unfavourable peculiarities in their manners and customs.'

'It is not to be doubted,' continues this writer, 'that there are many bright geniuses among them, who, through the difficulties of obtaining an education, have remained unpolished and unimproved. There are many indeed who, by their assiduous application, surmount every obstacle, burst through the cloud that overshadows them, and shine with distinguished lustre in the first offices of church and state; and their lustre

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is brightened by being contrasted with the total darkness in which others are involved; for, from the causes already assigned, no people are so ignorant as the lower class.

Another cause of their unsociability and apparent reserve, in encouraging and associating with strangers, is their want of enterprise. Their neighbours, more enterprising, emigrate and reap the fruit of those advantages which their local situation puts in their own power. This excites jealousy and rivalry. The balance of this rivalry they see is against them. The preservation of their interest and of their dignity calls them to unite in opposing their rivals. But it is evident that their union and friendship, in this regard, have too often their prime source in interest, are continued through interest, and have interest for their ultimate object. The intended effect of this union is in a great measure lost, through the natural jealousies and clashing interests of heads of families and their parties; for although they are all combined by the general bond of national prejudice, national customs, and national religion, they are split into numerous and warm parties. And among them, he who has the greatest interest and the strongest party, not he who has the most merit, is the greatest man, the most honourable man, and the best qualified for public office. In their meetings, they are ever led to think and say the worst of their opponents, and recal all the little circumstances of burlesque, malice, or mistake in them, which persons of more liberal sentiments would wish charitably to veil and bury in oblivion. Thus it is that the practice of slandering and injuring each other's characters becomes common, and furnishes a great part of their daily conversation; while that sweet and friendly intercourse which mends the heart, and that dignified and sensible conversation that improves the mind, are almost wholly neglected.

The labouring classes are generally well clothed, and have an air of independence and carelessness not usually seen in England. The dress of the genteeler classes is more slovenly and loose than that of men in the same rank in this country. The ladies are handsome, but have not that animated glow of health which distinguishes the British fair. But this subject

will be considered more at length, when we come to draw a portrait of the American character.

Chief Towns.—New York, the capital of the province, is situated on a promontory, on the extremity of York island, at the mouth of Hudson river, a noble and picturesque stream. The bay is about nine miles long, and three broad, without reckoning the branches of the rivers on each side of the town. From the ocean at Sandy Hook to the city is not more than 25 miles. The water is deep enough to float the largest vessels. Ships of 90 guns have anchored opposite the city. There they lie land-locked, and well secured from winds and storms; and fleets of the greatest number have ample space for mooring.

New York is the first city in the United States for wealth, commerce, and population; as it also is the finest and most agreeable for its situation and buildings. It has neither the narrow and confined irregularity of Boston, nor the monotonous regularity of Philadelphia, but a happy medium between both. When the intended improvements are completed, it will be a very elegant and commodious town.

The Broadway and the Bowery road are the two finest avenues in the city, and nearly of the same width as Oxford street in London. The first commences from the Grand Battery, situate at the extreme point of the town, and divides it into two unequal parts. It is upwards of two miles in length, though the pavement does not extend above a mile and a quarter: the remainder of the road consists of straggling houses, which are the commencement of new streets already planned out. The Bowery road commences at Chatham street, which branches off from the Broadway to the right, by the side of the park. After proceeding about a mile and a half, it joins the Broadway, and terminates the plan which is intended to be carried into effect for the enlargement of the city.

The houses in the Broadway are lofty and well built. They are constructed in the English style, and differ but little from those of London at the west end of the town; except that they are universally built of red brick. In the vicinity of

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the Battery, and for some distance up the Broadway, they are nearly all private houses, and occupied by the principal merchants and gentry of New York; after which the Broadway is lined with large commodious shops of every description, well stocked with European and India goods, and exhibiting as splendid and varied a show in their windows as can be met with in London. There are several extensive book stores, print shops, music shops, jewellers, and silversmiths; hatters, linen drapers, milliners, pastry cooks, coach-makers, hotels, and coffee-houses. The street is well paved, and the foot-paths are chiefly bricked. In Robinson street, the pavement before one of the houses, and the steps of the door, are composed entirely of marble.

This fine street and the other principal ones are thus described by Mr. Melish. 'Broadway is the finest street in the city; and from its importance and great beauty, it merits a particular description. It commences at the Battery, on the south-west point of the city, and runs in a north-east direction about two miles and a half, where it forms a junction with the Bowery road. The breadth of this street, including the side pavements, is about 80 feet, and it is regular, during its whole length. It is ornamented with rows of poplar trees on each side, and a number of public buildings are situated on it, particularly, the custom-house, trinity church, St. Paul's church, the city public buildings, the mechanics' hall, and the hospital. The street rises by a gradual ascent from the Battery, about half a mile, and is at its greatest elevation opposite the city buildings. Its course is through the highest part of the island. Greenwich street is next in importance: it rises also at the Battery, and, running nearly due north upwards of two miles, connects the city with the village of Greenwich. Pearl street is one of the most important in the city, in point of trade: it rises also near the Battery, and runs nearly parallel with the East river to Cherry street; from thence it runs to the northward, and falls into Chatham street. Cherry street is a continuation of Pearl street, and runs along the East river till it is terminated by a bend of the river. Bowery lane is upwards of 100 feet wide, rises at Chatham street, and, connected with

the Boston road, forms a junction with Broadway, as before mentioned. The other most important streets are Wall street, where the most of the banks and public offices are situated, Chatham-street, where the theatre is situated, Front street, Water street, and Broad street.

That part of the city which has been recently laid out on East river is constructed on a handsome plan, the streets crossing one another at right angles; and there are several public squares. Of these there are by far too few in the city, and they hardly merit notice. The Battery before mentioned is a pretty piece of ground, and commands an elegant view of the bay, islands, narrows, and shipping; but it is quite small, consisting of a few acres only.

A court-house on a large scale, and worthy of the improved state of the city, has recently been built at the end of the park, between the Broadway and Chatham street, in a style of magnificence unequalled in many of the larger cities of Europe. The exterior consists wholly of fine marble, ornamented in a very neat and elegant style of architecture; and the whole is surmounted by a beautiful dome, which forms a noble ornament to that part of the town, in which are also situated the theatre, mechanic hall, and some of the best private houses in New York. The park, though not remarkable for its size, is, however, of service, by displaying the surrounding buildings to greater advantage; and is also a relief to the confined appearance of the streets in general. It consists of about four acres, planted with elms, planes, willows, and catalpas; and the surrounding foot-walk is encompassed by rows of poplars: the whole is inclosed by a wooden paling. This city has its Vauxhall and Ranelagh; but they are poor imitations of those near London. They are, however, pleasant places of recreation for the inhabitants.

The other public buildings are, the Federal hall, college, coffee-house, hospital, prison, bridewell. There are seven episcopal churches; five presbyterian, two Dutch, three methodist, two baptist, and two quaker meeting-houses; one German, one Lutheran, and one French Calvinistic church; one seceder and one Scots reformed church; one church each

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for universalists, congregationalists, Moravians, and Africans;
 and one Jewish synagogue.

There are thirty-one benevolent institutions in New York.
 Upwards of twenty newspapers are published in this city,
 nearly half of which are daily papers; besides several weekly
 and monthly magazines and essays. A public library is also
 established here, which consists of about 10,000 volumes;
 many of them rare and valuable books. The building which
 contains them is situated in Nassau street, and the trustees are
 incorporated by an act of the legislature. There are also
 three or four public reading-rooms and circulating libraries,
 which are supported by some of the principal booksellers, from
 the annual subscriptions of the inhabitants. There is a mu-
 seum of natural curiosities in New York, but it contains no-
 thing worthy of particular notice.

There are a number of schools in the city, and the college,
 in which two of the professors are Scotchmen, is reckoned a
 very excellent seminary of education. To the north of the
 city, near Greenwich, stands the state prison, modelled upon
 the plan of that of Philadelphia; and it is said to be one of
 the most benevolent institutions ever established in any country.

The water side is lined with shipping, which lie along the
 wharfs, or in the small docks called slips, of which there are
 upwards of twelve towards the East river, besides numerous
 piers. The wharfs are large and commodious, and the ware-
 houses, which are nearly all new buildings, are lofty and sub-
 stantial. The merchants, ship-brokers, &c. have their offices
 in front on the ground floor of their warehouses. These ranges
 of buildings and wharfs extend from the Grand Battery, on
 both sides of the town, up the Hudson and East rivers, and
 encompass the houses with shipping, whose forest of masts
 gives a stranger a lively idea of the immense trade which this
 city carries on with every part of the globe. New York ap-
 pears to him the Tyre of the new world.

An intelligent English traveller thus describes his first im-
 pressions on landing in New York. 'I have walked alone
 through the streets, for the purpose of forming an independent
 judgment. Every object is new. I hardly dare trust myself

in forming conclusions: one most cheering fact is indisputable, the absence of *irremediable* distress. The street population bears an aspect essentially different from that of London, or large English towns. One striking feature consists in the number of blacks, many of whom are finely dressed; the females very judiciously so, showing a partiality to white muslin dresses, artificial flowers, and pink cheeks. I saw but few well-dressed white ladies, but am informed that the greater part are at present at the springs of Babylon and Saratoga. The dress of the men is rather deficient in point of neatness and gentility. Their appearance, in common with that of the ladies and children, is sallow, and what we should call unhealthy. Our friend D. tells me that to have colour in the cheeks is an infallible criterion by which to be discovered as an Englishman. In a British town of any importance, you cannot walk along a leading street for half an hour without meeting with almost every variety of size, dress, and appearance among the inhabitants; whilst, on the contrary, here they seem all of one family; and though not quite a "drab-coloured creation," the feelings they excite are not many degrees removed from the uninteresting sensations excited by that expression. The young men are tall, thin, and solemn: their dress is universally trowsers, and very generally loose great coats. Old men, as our English idea of that phrase, appear very rare.

Churches are numerous and handsome: the interior of one which I have just visited in Broadway is truly elegant, being fitted up with more taste, splendour, and, I presume, expence, than many in London. Several hotels are on an extensive scale; the City Hotel is as large as the London Tavern; the dining, and some of the private rooms, seem fitted up regardless of expence. The price of boarding at this establishment is, I understand, cheaper than where I reside. The shops (or stores, as they are called) have nothing in their exterior to recommend them: there is not even an attempt at tasteful display. The linen and woollen drapers (say good stores, as they are denominated) leave quantities of their goods loose on boxes in the street, without any precaution against theft. This practice, though a proof of their carelessness, is also an

evidence as to the *political* state of society worthy of attention. Masses of the population cannot be unemployed, or robbery would here be inevitable. A great number of excellent private dwellings are built of red painted brick, which gives them a peculiarly neat and clean appearance. In Broadway and Wall street trees are planted by the side of the pavement. The city-hall is a large and elegant building, in which the courts of law are held. In viewing this structure, I feel some objections which require farther observation either to remove or confirm. Most of the streets are dirty: in many of them sawyers are preparing wood for sale, and all are infested with pigs,—circumstances which indicate a lax police.

‘Upon the whole, a walk through New York will disappoint an Englishman: there is, on the surface of society, a carelessness, a laziness, an unsocial indifference, which freezes the blood and disgusts the judgment. An evening stroll along Broadway, when the lamps are alight, will please more than one at noon-day. The shops then look rather better, though their proprietors, of course, remain the same: their cold indifference may by themselves be mistaken for independence, but no person of thought and consideration will ever concede to them that they have selected a wise mode of exhibiting that dignified feeling. I disapprove most decidedly of the obsequious servility of many London shopkeepers; but I am not prepared to go the length of those in New York, who stand with their hats on, or sit or lie along their counters, smoking segars, and spitting in every direction, to a degree offensive to any man of decent feelings.

‘The prevalence of Dutch names tells me I am here a stranger; but this impression is often counteracted by viewing the immense quantities of British manufactured goods, with which the shops are crowded, as also the number of English works which are advertised, and such placards as “Hone’s Riot in London,” “Prince’s Russia Oil,” “Reeves and Wood-ry’s Colours,” and “Day and Martin’s Blacking.”’

Another traveller observes, ‘The situation of New York I should reckon very healthy; yet it is sometimes dreadfully afflicted with sickness; which circumstance, I am rather in-

clined to think, arises from a defect in the police, which does not seem to be conducted in a manner becoming the wealth and splendour of this fine city. The buildings are, in many places, too crowded: many of the wharfs are ill constructed, and some of the docks project into the city, especially from the East river, to the great annoyance of the inhabitants. The common sewers are incomplete, and there is no supply of fresh water to sweeten and purify the streets; but, beyond all, they have adopted the system of sinking necessaries, which accumulates such a collection of latent filth, that the steams of it are sometimes perceptible at two miles distance.

The commerce of New York is of great importance, and is in a high state of prosperity and progressive improvement. There are frequently about 600 vessels in the harbour at one time. The monies collected in New York, for the national treasury on the imports and tonnage, have for several years amounted to one-fourth of the public revenue. The population at present is estimated at 120,000; though in the year 1697 it only amounted to 4302. The number of deaths is at least one *thirtieth*, whereas the deaths in London are only about a *fiftieth* part of its population. It must, however, be observed, that suicides are much more numerous in New York than in London.

There are about 4000 negroes and people of colour in New York, 1700 of whom are slaves. These people are mostly of the methodist persuasion, and have a chapel or two of their own, with preachers of their colour; though some attend other places of worship, according to their inclination.

Albany is the seat of government of the state of New York, and is situated on the west side of the Hudson river, at the head of tide water, 180 miles from the sea. It runs nearly a mile along the river, and about half a mile back from it. The city is divided into streets, some of which are spacious, but others rather narrow and irregular. They are, however, pretty convenient, and there is a line of excellent wharfs and warehouses. The houses amount to about 1500, and the inhabitants to nearly 12,000. The houses are mostly built of brick, and many of them are elegant. The state-house stands

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on an elevated situation at the head of State street, and is a very handsome building, with most splendid and convenient apartments for the legislature to meet in. The old state-house is also in State street, and is occupied by the several different public offices. The other public buildings are the arsenal, powder-house, city library, three banks, ten churches, two market-houses, two masonic lodges, a theatre, and Cook's reading-room, an institution probably better supplied with newspapers, and other periodical publications, than any other in the United States.

The city is well supplied with water. There are two excellent springs three miles to the westward, from whence it is conveyed in pipes to every part of the city. Lots in the principal streets are as high as in New York, and the rent of houses and stores is in proportion. This being the great mart, in which the trade of an extensive back country centres, it is well supplied with provisions; but the outlet to the great commercial city, New York, is so easy, by the fine river Hudson, that all articles which can be easily shipped are kept pretty high.

The principal manufactures of Albany are those of grain, brewing, and distilling. There are no manufactories of cloth in the city, but there are several in the neighbourhood, and there is a disposition in the citizens to encourage them, though apparently against their interest, the trade of the city being almost wholly commercial. The principal trade is by the river, on which is sent down grain and provisions, timber, malt liquors, and spirits; and they receive in return groceries, dry goods, hardware, and crockery, to supply a great part of the country. American manufactured glass, however, begins to make a prominent appearance in the warehouse; and they will, no doubt, feel the advantage of other articles of American manufacture soon. Albany, from its situation, must be always a place of extended commerce. At present it suffers by the re-action of an overstrained foreign commerce; but that will be but temporary. Internal manufactures and commerce, being once organized, will more than compensate for the loss of the other.

The citizens of Albany are very mixed. The original settlement was by the Dutch, and their descendants form a very prominent part of the society. Of Scottish settlers there are a great many, and the rest are principally New Englanders. In such an assemblage, we may naturally look for industry and enterprise, and a general attention to education and the improvement of the mind, all of which are very perceptible in the citizens. There are good mechanics in all the different branches. The schools are numerous; the library and reading-room have been already noticed. Two newspapers are published, each twice a week, which have a pretty extensive circulation. That the place is healthy, appears in the countenances of the ladies, many of whom are handsome, with beautiful florid complexions. That it is cold in winter is indicated by the general use of stoves, and the quantities of fuel that are collected for sale.

Hudson is of modern construction, and consists of one very long street. The houses are of wood or brick; many of them built with taste, and all spacious and commodious. Shops and warehouses are numerous, and there are several large inns. It has every appearance of a thriving settlement; and its situation is elevated and advantageous for commerce. There are several large brick warehouses near the wharfs for the reception of goods; and a great many small vessels sail continually upon the river between this town and New York. Ship-building is carried on here; and vessels of 3 or 400 tons come into the harbour. The population of this flourishing place is at present estimated at about 5000.

Skenectady is 16 miles north-west of Albany, in Albany county, situated on the banks of the Mohawk river. The town is compact and regular, built principally of brick, on a rich flat of low land, surrounded with hills. The windings of the river through the town and the fields, which are often overflowed in the spring, afford a beautiful prospect about harvest time. As it is at the foot of navigation on a long river, which passes through a very fertile country, and is the medium of all the western trade through the lakes, that comes down the Hudson, it must grow rich in proportion as the country

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The other most important towns and villages are *Newburg*, *Poughkeepsie*, *Troy*, *Lansingburgh*, and *Waterford*, on the Hudson; *Utica*, *Herkimer*, and *Rome*, on the Mohawk; and *Skeneateles*, *Geneva*, *Canandagua*, and *Buffalo*, to the westward. The houses are generally substantially built, and are a good deal similar to those in the New English states. The roads, bridges, and canals are numerous, and of great importance.

Trade and Resources.—The manufactures of the state are considerable and increasing; particularly the articles of glass, ashes, iron ware of various descriptions, leather of all kinds, hats, carriages, paper and printing, pottery ware, umbrellas, mathematical and musical instruments. From what has been said of New York, it will be seen that the commerce of this state is very extensive.

The internal revenue in 1815 amounted to 1,223,231 dollars, and the value of houses and lands to 273,120,600 dollars; land being valued at 6½ dollars per acre. The increase of the value of property in this state, in the course of fifteen years, has been from 100,000,000 to 270,000,000.

In 1815, the gross amount of duties on merchandise was 14,867,311 dollars. The registered tonnage employed in foreign trade was 180,664, and the tonnage in the coasting trade 2240.

Education.—There are many flourishing academies and grammar schools, lately established in the state; but many parts of the country are either unfurnished with schools, or the schools which they have are kept by low ignorant men.

King's college, in the city of New York, was principally founded by the voluntary contributions of the inhabitants of the province, assisted by the general assembly, and the corporation of Trinity church, in the year 1754, a royal charter being then obtained, incorporating a number of gentlemen therein mentioned, by the name of "The Governors of the College of the Province of New York, in the City of New York, in America;" and granting to them and their successors for ever,

amongst various other rights and privileges, the power of conferring all such degrees, as are usually conferred by either of the English universities. The building consists of an elegant stone edifice, three complete stories high, with four stair-cases, twelve apartments in each, a chapel, hall, library, museum, anatomical theatre, and a school for experimental philosophy. It is situated on a dry gravelly soil, about 150 yards from the bank of Hudson's river, which it overlooks; commanding a most extensive and beautiful prospect. This college is now called COLUMBIA COLLEGE, and, since the revolution, has been placed under the superintendence of 24 trustees.

There are several academies in the state. One is at Flatbush, in King's county, on Long island, four miles from Brooklyn ferry. It is situated in a pleasant, healthy village. The building is large, handsome, and convenient, and is called *Erasmus hall*. There is another very flourishing academy at East Hampton, on the east end of Long island. Besides these, the state can boast of several excellent grammar schools. There is one at Kingston, in Ulster county; one at Goshen, in the county of Orange; two at Albany; one at Skenectady; one at Lansingburgh; and another at West Chester. There are also schools erected in many parts of the state, which are maintained by the voluntary contributions of the parents.

Religion.—A late writer thus expresses himself upon this interesting topic, 'There is no state religion, and no government prosecution for conscience sake. The presbyterian and episcopalian, or church of England, sects take the precedence in numbers and in respectability. Their ministers receive from 2 to 8000 dollars per annum. All churches are well filled: they appear the fashionable places for *display*; and the sermons and talents of the minister offer never-ending subjects of interest when social converse has been exhausted. The perfect equality of all sects seems to have deadened party feeling: controversy is but little known. The great proportion of attendants at any particular church appear to select it either because they are acquainted with the preacher, or that it is frequented by fashionable company, or their great grandmother went there before the revolution, or because (what will

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generally have a greater weight than all these reasons) *their interest will be promoted by so doing.*

'Licences are not necessary for either the preacher or place of meeting. According to the constitution of the state of New York, no minister of the gospel, or priest of any denomination, can ever hold any civil or military office or place within the state. In 1806, a law was passed, authorising any religious denomination to appoint trustees, for the purpose of superintending the temporal concerns of their respective congregations. These trustees become by that act a body corporate, and capable of all legal transactions, on behalf of the congregation: they are allowed, on the part of the whole, to hold estates, which may produce 3000 dollars annually. The episcopalians differ, I believe, in nothing from their *established* brethren in England, except that they do not form a part of the state: they have their bishops, &c. as in Great Britain. Ministers of all parties are generally ordained: they are exempt from military service.'

Government.—The government of the state is vested in a governor, lieutenant-governor, senate, and house of representatives. The governor and lieutenant-governor are elected for three years, the senators for four, and the assembly-men are chosen annually. The necessary qualifications for the electors are, six months residence in the state previous to the election; the possession of a freehold of 20*l.* value, or to have rented a tenement of the value of 40*s.* yearly; and to have been rated on the polls, and actually paid taxes to the state.

Islands.—Long island, a part of the state of New York, is chiefly occupied by farmers: their populous capital affords a ready market for produce. This island in length is 120, and in breadth 12 miles. It is divided into counties, two of which retain the names of royalty; the first being called King's, and the second Queen's county—such inveterate tyrants are ancient customs. The west end has a good soil, and is in a state of moderate cultivation: the east has a considerable portion of sandy plains. The introduction of gypsum, and other improvements in their mode of agriculture, have much increased the annual produce. Within the last 14 years, farms have

seen in value 25 per cent. Land is worth from 3*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* to 33*l.* 15*s.* per acre. A choice of farms may now be purchased in this island at from 15*l.* 15*s.* to 22*l.* 10*s.* per acre, including necessary buildings. Farmers do not live extravagantly: few of them have money in reserve. The high price of labour, indifference of the soil, and general want of capital, must cause a long continuance of this state of things. The agriculturist, who alone can, in this island, entertain rational hopes of profit, must have sons that will work, and be himself among the foremost by labouring with their own hands. Their being no tax upon horses, their labour is preferred, and mules and asses are seldom if ever used.

This interesting island, which is called the garden of America, is separated from the city of New York by East river, which, at the ferry, is about one-third wider than the Thames at Greenwich.

Staten island lies nine miles south-west of the city of New York, and forms Richmond county. It is about 18 miles in length, and between six and seven in breadth. The land, in general, is hilly and uneven; but there is some good level ground on its southern extremity.

York island is 13 miles long, and from one to two miles wide. The port and city of New York is situated on its southern end, and is closely built from shore to shore. This is a most delightful district; and the scenery, particularly on the margin of the East river, is pleasing and diversified. It is thickly studded with country seats and gardens; and the fruit is so plentiful, that people are at liberty to pull apples, &c. on the road side. As most of the genteel families have country retreats, where they reside during the hot or sickly season, beautiful and handsome seats are rapidly multiplying, and the value of property increasing.

History.—Hudson river was first discovered by Henry Hudson, an Englishman, who sold his claim to the Dutch. A few years after, several merchants in Holland joined and built a fort near Albany, which they called fort Orange. In 1615, a fort was built on the site of the present city. But, in 1664, the colony was surrendered to colonel Nicolls, who landed at

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the head of 800 British soldiers. The name of the city was now changed from New Amsterdam to New York, and fort Orange was called Albany, in honour of his royal highness James duke of York and Albany.

In the year 1673, the Dutch retook this settlement; but it was restored at the peace in the following year. The English had happily succeeded in retaining the friendship of the six Indian tribes inhabiting the territory west of Albany; but in the winter of 1690, the French sent 200 soldiers and a party of Indians to attack Skenectady, in order to detach the confederate tribes from the British interest. For twenty days they marched through the snow, carrying their provisions on their backs. Such was the extreme distress to which they were reduced, that they had thoughts of surrendering themselves prisoners of war. But their scouts, who were a day or two in the village entirely unsuspected, returned with such encouraging accounts of the absolute security of the people, that the enemy determined on the attack. They entered, on Saturday night about eleven o'clock, at the gates, which were found unshut; and, that every house might be invested at the same time, divided into small parties of six or seven men. The inhabitants were in a profound sleep, and unalarmed, until their doors were broke open. Never were people in a more wretched consternation. Before they were risen from their beds, the enemy entered their houses, and began the perpetration of the most inhuman barbarities. No tongue can express the cruelties that were committed. The whole village was instantly in a blaze. Women with child were ripped open, and their infants cast into the flames, or dashed against the posts of the doors. Sixty persons perished in the massacre, and 27 were carried into captivity. The rest fled naked towards Albany, through a deep snow which fell that very night in a terrible storm; and 25 of the fugitives lost their limbs in the flight, through the severity of the frost. The news of this dreadful tragedy reached Albany about break of day, and universal dread seized the inhabitants of that city, the enemy being reported to be 1400 strong. A party of horse was immediately dispatched to Skenectady, and a few Mohawks then in town,

fearful of being intercepted, were with difficulty sent to apprise their own castles.

In 1709, this province expended large sums in preparations to reduce Canada; but not being properly seconded by the English government, the enterprise was abandoned. In the following year, governor Hunter arrived with 3000 Germans, who had fled from a religious persecution, which opened the road for emigration from that part of Europe.

Excepting internal disputes between the episcopalians and presbyterians, and struggles against the extension of the French interest amongst the Indians, nothing material occurred in this state until the revolution.

NEW JERSEY.

Situation and Extent. NEW JERSEY is situated between 39 deg. and 41 deg. 20 min. north lat., and 1 deg. 30 min. and 3 deg. 5 min. east long. It is bounded on the east by Hudson's river and the sea; on the south by the sea; on the west by Delaware bay and river, which divide it from the states of Delaware and Pennsylvania; and on the north by a line drawn from the mouth of Mahakamak river to a point in Hudson's river in lat. 41 deg. Its length is 145 miles, and its breadth 60. It contains 6500 square miles, being 4,160,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—The state extends along the sea-coast upwards of 100 miles, which, with the exception of the high-land of Never Sink, is low and sandy; but it is more elevated and more diversified towards the interior. The northern part swells out into high lands, and, towards the extremity of the state, there are considerable mountains. The principal rivers

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have been already noticed, and there are no other of any note, though small streams are numerous, and supply the state abundantly with mill seats.

The climate is strikingly different in the different sections of the state. In the northern part there is clear settled weather, and the winters are excessively cold, but the whole is very healthy: in the southern part, particularly towards the extremity, the climate approaches to that of the southern states, and is subject to very sudden changes.

About one-fourth part of the state is sandy and barren: there are in the southern parts extensive pine barrens, and cedar swamps. Large tracts of salt meadow run along Delaware bay, and the rivers which fall into the Atlantic. Along the rivers and small streams in the interior of the state there is much good land; and the hilly district abounds with fertile valleys.

The state abounds with minerals; producing iron, lead, copper, gypsum, coal, and slate; and there are several useful clays and ochres.

Population.—The population of New Jersey in 1817 amounted to 345,822, which is above 53 persons to a square mile.

Manners, &c.—The inhabitants of this state are a collection of Low Dutch, Germans, English, Scotch, Irish, and New Englanders, or their descendants. National attachments and mutual convenience have generally induced these several kinds of people to settle together, which has tended to preserve their peculiar national manners, customs, and character. Religion has also contributed to render this difference more striking: the presbyterian, the quaker, the episcopalian, the baptist, the German and Low Dutch Calvinist, the methodist, and the Moravian, have each something peculiar in their worship, discipline, or dress. Besides, the people in West Jersey trade to Philadelphia, and of course imitate their fashions, and imitate their manners. The inhabitants of East Jersey trade to New York, and regulate their fashions and manners according to those of New York: so that the difference in regard to fashions and manners between East and West Jersey, is nearly

as great as between New York and Philadelphia. On the whole, the people of this state are in general sober, frugal, and industrious; though not remarkable for activity and intelligence.

Chief Towns.—*Trenton* is the capital of New Jersey, and is situated on the Delaware river, 30 miles from Philadelphia, and 68 from New York. It is a handsome little town, containing about 300 houses. The public buildings are the state-house, a court-house, an episcopal church, a presbyterian church, a quaker meeting-house, and methodist meeting-house. *Trenton bridge*, which crosses the Delaware, being one of the most elegant in the United States, merits a particular description. It consists of five arches of 194 feet span each, built of white pine, and supported on strong stone piers: the whole length is 970 feet, the breadth 36. The arches are elevated over head by substantial rafters, and the platform, or carriage way, is suspended by these arches, and forms a plane the whole length of the bridge. Above the top of the arches the roof is covered in, so as to secure the whole from the weather; and the carriage way is divided into two sections, each of which is appropriated to travellers in one direction. At the entrance, passengers are directed to take the road on the right hand. Upon the whole, this is a very elegant piece of architecture. It was commenced in 1804, and is the plan of a mechanic of the name of Burr. In the neighbourhood of this state are several pleasant seats, finely situated on the banks of the Delaware, and ornamented with taste and elegance.

Burlington extends three miles along the Delaware, and is 20 miles above Philadelphia by water, and 17 by land. The river is here about a mile wide, and under shelter of Mittenicunk and Burlington islands, affords a safe and convenient harbour. Part of the city is built upon the latter island, which is connected by bridges and causeways with the main land. The principal streets are spacious and ornamented with trees. Here is an excellent jail, a court-house, and two market-houses. This port is well situated for trade; but is too near the opulent city of Philadelphia to admit of any considerable increase.

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Perth Amboy took its name from James Drummond, earl of Perth, and Ambo, the Indian word for point; and stands on a neck of land included between Raritan river and Arthur Kill sound. Its situation is high and healthy. It lies open to Sandy Hook, and has one of the best harbours on the continent. Vessels from sea may enter it in one tide, in almost any weather. Great efforts have been made, and legislative encouragements offered, to render it a place of trade, but without success. It was formerly the capital of East Jersey.

Brunswick is an incorporated city, containing about 8000 inhabitants. The greater part of it is low, and it is not very handsome, but seems to be improving. It was originally settled mostly by Dutch people, and there are three Dutch churches. The other public buildings worthy of notice are, the court-house and academy; which last is said to be a very thriving seminary. The lands in the neighbourhood appear rough and rocky; but they raise pretty good crops, particularly of grass, which has, throughout the whole of this district, flourished very much of late, in consequence of the application of plaster of Paris.

Newark is a beautiful town, regularly laid out in broad streets, on a fine plain, and contains nearly 2000 inhabitants. The public buildings are two places for public worship, a court-house, and academy. Considerable manufactures are carried on here, particularly of leather. The inhabitants have likewise a pretty extensive inland trade; and have a bank to facilitate their commercial operations. The country is well cultivated in the neighbourhood, and Newark is remarkable for the goodness of its cyder, of which a large quantity is made annually.

Six miles from Newark is *Elizabethtown*, containing two churches and an academy. It is a pretty little place, and the land in its neighbourhood is fertile and well cultivated.

Trade and Resources.—This is neither a manufacturing nor a commercial state. Though many attempts have been made to encourage the trade at Amboy and Burlington, yet the merchants of New York and Philadelphia continue to be the factors for New Jersey. The principal articles of manufacture

are iron, leather, glass, and paper, of which large quantities are exported. But the resources of the state consist mostly of agricultural produce; though the unenterprising habits of the farmers prevent the adoption of new and useful improvements. The produce of the state is wheat, rye, barley, oats, Indian corn, potatoes and other vegetables, and a vast quantity of fruit; and butter and cheese are made in great quantities, for the supply of the New York and Philadelphia markets.

The value of houses and lands, by the returns of the assessors in 1815, was 98,612,083 dollars; the average value of land being 35 dollars per acre. The internal revenue amounted to 211,705 dollars; the gross amount of duties upon merchandise was only 17,666 dollars, the tonnage employed in foreign trade 2465, and in the coasting trade 2668.

Education.—The general dissemination of knowledge through the state has not been attended to according to its importance. There are numerous seminaries for the higher branches of literature; but the state seems defective in common schools.

Religion.—The presbyterians, quakers, and baptists, are very numerous in this state. There are also many that belong to the episcopalian, Moravian, methodist, and Dutch reformed churches. But, according to the law, none are compelled to attend or support any worship contrary to their own judgment.

Government.—The state is divided into 13 counties and 100 townships. The government is vested in a governor; legislative council, and general assembly. The council consists of one member, and the assembly of three members, from each county, chosen annually by the people. The governor is chosen annually by the council and assembly. The qualification for a voter is 50 $\frac{1}{2}$. The state is prospering, and increasing in population and wealth.

History.—The first settlers of New Jersey were a number of Dutch emigrants from New York, who came over between the years 1614 and 1620, and settled in the county of Bergen. Next after these, in 1627, came over a colony of Swedes and Fins, and settled on the river Delaware. The Dutch and Swedes, though not in harmony with each other, kept possession of the country many years.

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In March, 1684, Charles II. granted all the territory, called by the Dutch New Netherlands, to his brother the duke of York, who, in 1674, had this grant confirmed by a new patent. In the same year, New Jersey was divided: West Jersey was granted to the assigns of lord Berkeley, and East Jersey to Sir G. Carteret. In the following year, a factory was settled at Salem in West Jersey, and these were the first English settlers in West Jersey. In 1682, East Jersey was sold to 24 proprietors; which division caused so much confusion, that the proprietors surrendered the government to the crown in 1702, in which state it continued till the revolution.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Situation and Extent. THIS fine state is situated between 39 deg. 43 min. and 42 deg. north lat., and 2 deg. 20 min. east, and 3 deg. 30 min. west long. It is bounded on the east by Delaware river; on the north by the parallel of 42 deg. north lat., which divides it from the state of New York; on the south by the parallel of 39 deg. 43 min. 18 sec. north lat., which divides it from the states of Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia; and on the west by a meridian line, drawn from the termination of 5 degrees of longitude, from a point on Delaware river, near Wilmington, in the parallel of 39 deg. 43 min. 18 sec., to intersect the parallel of 42 deg. This line divides the state from a part of Virginia, the Western Territory (so called), and from a tract of land, 20 miles square, which was confirmed to Connecticut by congress. The north-west corner of Pennsylvania extends about one mile and a half into lake Erie, and is about 20 miles west of the old French fort at Presque isle. This state is 320 miles

long from east to west, and 162 miles broad; and contains 48,700 square miles, being 31,168,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—The face of the country is remarkably diversified. The south-east part, to the distance of about 60 or 70 miles from Philadelphia, is an undulating country, swelling in some places into considerable hills; but it is not mountainous. The mountainous region then commences, and extends across the country about 120 miles. The mountains are generally in long chains, running north-east and south-west. Between the chains, the country is rough and hilly; but there are many fine vallies, and the whole abounds with picturesque scenery. To the north and west of the mountains, the country is elevated, abounding with hills, valleys, and rich scenery, which continue about 120 miles, to the extremity of the state.

The country is remarkably well watered. Lake Erie is situated on the north-west, and the Delaware bay on the south-east, by both of which there are fine outlets, the one affording direct and speedy communication with the Atlantic ocean, the other communicating with it by the more advantageous course of the river St. Lawrence; while it is a link in the chain of an inland navigation, extending through the lakes upwards of a thousand miles. To the south-west the state communicates with the Ohio, having an outlet, through the Mississippi, to the gulf of Mexico; and from the middle there is an outlet through the Susquehannah to the Chesapeake bay.

The Delaware is the principal river of this state. From the mouth of Delaware bay, at cape Henlopen, to Philadelphia, is reckoned 118 miles. So far there is a sufficient depth of water for a 74 gun ship. From Philadelphia to Trenton falls is 35 miles. This is the head of sloop navigation. The river is navigable, for boats that carry eight or nine tons, 40 miles further, and for Indian canoes, except several small falls or portages, 150 miles. At Easton it receives the Lehigh from the west, which is navigable 30 miles. The tide sets up as high as Trenton falls, and at Philadelphia rises generally about six miles. A north-east and east wind raises it higher. On cape Henlopen stands the light-house, with a few other houses. Opposite the light-house, on the Jersey shore, 12

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miles, is cape May. Between these capes is the entrance into Delaware bay. The entrance into the river is 20 miles further up, at Bombay Hook, where the river is four or five miles wide. From Bombay Hook to Reedy island is 20 miles. This island is the rendezvous of outward bound ships in autumn and spring, waiting for a favourable wind. This river is generally frozen one or two months in the year so as to prevent navigation. At Philadelphia it is about a mile broad. The banks are level and covered with wood; and the lands rise to a considerable height at a distance, affording in some places pretty good views.

The Schuylkill rises north-west of the Kittatinny mountains, through which it passes into a fine champaign country, and runs, from its source, upwards of 120 miles in a south-east direction, and falls into the Delaware three miles below Philadelphia. It is navigable from above Reading, 85 or 90 miles, to its mouth. There are three floating bridges thrown across it, made of logs fastened together, and lying upon the water.

The Lehigh rises among the mountains, between the Delaware and Susquehannah, and running a very crooked passage, emerges from the mountains about 50 miles from its source, and from thence runs through a fine country 30 miles, during which it is navigable to Easton, where it falls into the Delaware.

The Susquehannah is a noble river, and appears on the map like a large crooked tree, with numerous branches. The head waters of the eastern branch are numerous, and rise in the state of New York, not far from the waters of the Mohawk river. Passing into the state of Pennsylvania, it makes a remarkable bend, called appropriately the *Big Bend*; from thence it makes a stretch into New York, and passing to the westward, about 40 miles, turns again to the southward, and passes into the state of Pennsylvania, where it forms a junction with the Tioga river at Tioga point. It then runs a south-east course, about 70 miles; when making a sudden bend, at a right angle, it runs a south-west course, about 80 miles, and unites with the western branch at Northumberland. The river is now nearly half a mile broad, and flows through the mountains, nearly a south course of 40 miles, to where it re-

ceives the Junita river. From thence it makes a considerable bend to the eastward, and running about 10 miles, it emerges from the mountains above Harrisburg; and keeps a south-east course about 80 miles, when it falls into the Chesapeake bay.

The Tioga river has its head waters partly in Pennsylvania, and partly in New York, where some of the streams approach within a few miles of the waters of the St. Lawrence. These all unite in New York state, towards the Painted Post, and run a south-east course of nearly 40 miles, to the junction with the Susquehannah.

The western branch of the Susquehannah is formed by many streams, beyond the Alleghany mountains, some of them approaching within a few miles of the waters of the St. Lawrence, and others within a few miles of the waters of the Ohio and Mississippi, and runs a very circuitous course, upwards of 200 miles, principally among the mountains, to its junction with the east branch.

The Junita river rises on the Alleghany mountains, near the head waters of the Conemaugh, a branch of the Ohio, and passing through the mountains to the eastward, by a very serpentine course, it falls into the Susquehannah as aforesaid, its length being nearly 200 miles.

The length of the Susquehannah, from the Chesapeake bay to the head of the eastern branch, is upwards of 450 miles; and the whole river, including its branches, waters a country nearly 200 miles square. It is navigable for large vessels only a few miles, and there are many islands, rocks, and falls, which obstruct the navigation for boats; but it is presumed that these can be removed, and that, by the aid of some locks and canals, it can be rendered navigable, almost to the source of the eastern branch. The western branch is navigable for boats nearly 150 miles, and the Junita river nearly 120. From this short account, the importance of improving the navigation of this fine river will be readily inferred.

The Alleghany river rises on the highest land in the state, to the westward of the mountains, within a few miles of the head waters of the Genesee river, and the western branch of the Susquehannah. It is here called Oswaya creek, and runs

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a north-west course into the state of New York, and, passing again into the state of Pennsylvania, it receives the waters of Conewongo creek and Chataughque lake. From thence it runs a winding course, but generally south-west, to Franklin, where it receives the waters of French creek. From thence it runs a circuitous course about 100 miles, receiving in its progress many tributary streams, particularly Toby's creek and Kishkemanetas rivers, and at Pittsburg forms a junction with the Monongahela, which together constitute the Ohio.

The Alleghany is a navigable river, and the navigation is continued through French creek to Waterford, from whence there is a portage of only 14 miles to lake Erie. The navigation is extended into the country 20 or 25 miles, by the Kishkemanetas river.

The Monongahela rises in Virginia, near the Laurel mountains, and, running by a meandering course about 70 miles, passes into this state; soon after which it receives the waters of Cheat river. From thence it continues, by a serpentine course, but nearly in a northern direction, about 60 miles, where it forms a junction with Yoxhiogeni, and thence runs north-west about 14 miles to Pittsburg. It is navigable in large boats to Brownville and Morgantown, 100 miles from its mouth; and from thence by small boats 40 miles farther. The western branch is also navigable in high water.

The Yoxhiogeni rises in Maryland, and runs a course east of north, about 40 miles before it passes into this state. From thence it runs a north-west course, and, passing the Laurel hill and Chesnut ridge, forms the junction with the Monongahela above mentioned; its whole length being about 100 miles.

The soil to the east of the mountains is generally good, and a considerable part of it is bedded on limestone. Among the mountains the land is rough, and much of it poor; but there are a great many rich and fertile valleys. To the west of the mountains the soil is generally excellent.

The climate is very various. On the east side of the Alleghany mountains it is pretty similar to Jersey, already described. It is, in common with the other countries east of the mountains, subject to great and sudden changes; but it is

considered more settled than immediately on the sea-board, and is perfectly healthy. The winter commences about the 20th of December, and the spring sets in about two weeks earlier than at New York. Among the mountains there is a sharp atmosphere, with a clear, settled sky. There is frost almost every month in the year in some places; and the extremes of heat and cold are considerable. The winters may be reckoned a month longer than to the eastward. The whole region is healthy.—The country beyond the mountains has a temperate climate, with a considerable portion of cloudy weather; and the winters are more humid and mild than on the Atlantic.

The agriculture of the state has improved rapidly, and is in an advanced state. The staple article is wheat, of which the quantity manufactured into flour annually is immense. It is reckoned the best in the United States, and surpassed by none in the world. The mountainous district is pretty much applied to raising stock. The breed of horses is reckoned the best in the United States. Sheep have of late greatly increased, and thrive remarkably well. All the grains, grasses, and roots common to the other states thrive here. The stock of fruit, particularly peaches, is excellent; and some progress has of late been made in the cultivation of the vine.

This state is well supplied with iron ore; and coal abounds in many places, particularly in the western country. Slate is found in several places; and marble and freestone, of an excellent quality, are found in great abundance. Limestone is also in great plenty; and some copper and lead have been found, but not in sufficient quantity to be wrought. There are many mineral springs in the state.

Population.—The population of this state in 1817 amounted to 986,494, which is above 20 persons to a square mile.

Manners, &c.—A late writer, in speaking of the manners of the citizens of Philadelphia, says, 'The habits of the people are marked by caution and secrecy. Although the eyes and ears of a stranger are not insulted in the openness of noon-day with evidence of hardened profligacy, I have, nevertheless, reason to believe in its existence to a very great extent; though

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perhaps there is no Philadelphia parent would say to me what a respectable inhabitant of New York did: "There is not a father in this city but who is sorry that he has got a son."

'There is, of course, here no rank of society correspondent to the peerage, or the "*haut-ton*," in England; but there are many who keep carriages, have truly elegant houses, and superb furniture. These are called of the "first class;" and although they have not the pomp or the titles, they have the pride of an aristocracy. The small and middling tradesmen do not make much exertion, live easily, save no money, and appear to care nothing about either the present or future. If they find business getting bad, they do, what is called, "sell out," and pack up for the "back country." The labourer and mechanic are independent, not in purse, but in condition. Neither they nor their master conceive that any obligation is conferred by employing them. They live well, and may always have a dollar in their pockets. Men are here independent of each other: this will shew itself even in half an hour's walk through the streets of Philadelphia.

'The dress of the gentlemen is copied from the fashions of England; that of the ladies from France,—who very modestly believe, and indeed have no hesitation in declaring, that they combine the excellences of the French and the English character, without possessing the defects of either. For myself, I can trace no resemblance to the former, unless it consist in kid gloves and artificial flowers; nor to the latter, except in a fondness for lady Morgan's writings, and an admiration of lord Wellington's achievements. Could American ladies be content to despise instead of copying the vanity of their countrymen, and take a few practical lessons from the English female in the management of domestic concerns, and the cultivation of their minds, then indeed their fine forms might become peculiarly interesting, at least to the man of sense.'

About one-third of the inhabitants are friends and episcopalians, chiefly of English extraction. The Irish are mostly presbyterians, and are very numerous: they inhabit the western and frontier counties. The Germans compose at least one-fourth of the whole population of the state; they are ge-

nerally employed in agriculture, and are distinguished for industry and frugality; but the poorer class are extremely ignorant and superstitious. They mostly reside in the neighbourhood of Philadelphia.

Mr. Fearon says he 'passed through an extensive, fertile, well-cultivated, and beautiful tract of land, called the "Great Valley." Farms in this district are chiefly owned by Dutch and Germans, and their descendants. They consist of from 50 to 200 acres, each acre worth 200 dollars (\$5l.), and are cheaper at that price than the 50 cent and dollar and half lands, which encumber other parts of the eastern states. The substantial barns, fine private dwellings, excellent breed and condition of live stock, and superior cultivation of the "Great Valley," place it decidedly in advance of the neighbouring lands, and put it fairly in competition with Old England. The proprietors are wealthy. They have the reputation of being practical opponents of the desolating system of paper money, by keeping their hard cash safely locked up in their "old country" boxes. Be this as it may, their property, unlike that of their fellow citizens on the sea-side, has not vanished into air by the late mighty political changes. They have been blessed by heaven with excellent land and good markets; and although their progress in the acquirement of "this world's goods" has not been like the rise of Jonah's gourd, neither has it shared the fate of that transitory plant.'

Chief Towns.—*Philadelphia* is situated between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, about four miles above their junction. It is laid out on an elegant plan, with streets crossing one another at right angles, and extends between the two rivers, being upwards of two miles in length from east to west, and a little more than one mile in breadth. There are large suburbs to the north and south, on the Delaware river, called the Northern Liberties, Kensington, and Southwark; and these extend upwards of a mile to the north, and half a mile south of the city, making the extreme length on the Delaware river nearly three miles. But the city is closely built to the westward only about a mile; the buildings on the remaining part, towards the Schuylkill, being very thinly scattered. It

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is, however, rapidly filling up in that direction. High or Market street is about 100 feet broad, and running the whole length of the city, is terminated by the Schuylkill bridge to the west. A street of equal breadth, called Broad street, crosses it in the middle, where there is a large area, called Centre square, on which the water works are built. The streets running parallel to High street are named after various trees said to have been found on the ground on which they are laid out. To the north are Mulberry, Sassafras, and Vine; to the south, Chesnut, Walnut, Locust, Spruce, Pine, and Cedar. The cross streets are numbered according to situation from the rivers, thus, Front, Second, Third, and so on, to Thirteenth, on the Delaware side; and from Front to Eighth, on the Schuylkill side. Mulberry street is 60 feet wide, and all the other streets are 50. It was the intention of the benevolent projector of the city that Front street, on the Delaware, should have been the eastern boundary, and that the space between that and the river should have been converted into public ground, useful and ornamental to the city; but this elegant plan has given way to the avidity for commercial gain, and this spot is now thickly built up with wharfs, warehouses, and dwelling houses; which form a street on the low ground along the margin of the river, called Water street. In the original plan there were a great number of public squares, but several of them have also been infringed upon, though there are still many left, which are very ornamental to the city.

An English writer observes that the city, on approaching it by water, looks extremely well; which impression is, however, dissipated on coming nearer, 'as nothing is visible from the water but confused heaps of wooden storehouses, crowded upon each other, the chief of which are built upon platforms of artificial ground, and wharfs which project a considerable way into the river. The wharfs are of a rectangular form, and built of wood; they jut out in every direction, and are well adapted for the accommodation of shipping, the largest merchant vessels being able to lie close alongside them. Behind these wharfs, and parallel to the river, runs Water street. This is the first street which you usually enter after landing,

and it does not serve to give a stranger a very favourable opinion either of the neatness or commodiousness of the public ways of Philadelphia. It is no more than 30 feet wide; and immediately behind the houses, which stand on the side farthest from the water, a high bank, supposed to be the old bank of the river, rises, which renders the air very confined. Added to this, such stench at times prevail in it, owing in part to the quantity of filth and dirt that is suffered to remain on the pavement, and in part to what is deposited in waste houses, of which there are several in the street, that it is really dreadful to pass through it. It was here that the malignant yellow fever broke out in the year 1793, which made such terrible ravages; and in the summer season, in general, the street is found extremely unhealthy.

The city is composed almost wholly of brick houses, covered with slate or shingles; and they are generally ornamented with marble steps, with sills and lintels for the doors and windows; which form an elegant contrast with the brick, and add much to the beauty of the buildings. Some of the public buildings are wholly composed of marble, and others are much ornamented with it, which gives the city an elegant and even magnificent appearance.

The public buildings are very numerous. The bare mention of a few of them will be sufficient to convey an idea of the importance of the city. The state-house, with the court-houses and philosophical hall adjoining, the dispensary, almshouse, hospital, jail, carpenter's hall, college, academy, library, two theatres, four banks, five quaker meeting-houses, six presbyterian churches, three episcopal churches, four Roman catholic churches, three methodist churches, and one each for German Calvinists, German Lutherans, Swedish Lutherans, Moravians, baptists, unitarians, Jews, and universalists.

The state-house is remarkable as being the place from whence the independence of the United States was first proclaimed; and the legislature of the United States held their meetings in the adjoining buildings, while Philadelphia was the seat of the general government. When the legislature of Pennsylvania continued at Philadelphia, they held their meet-

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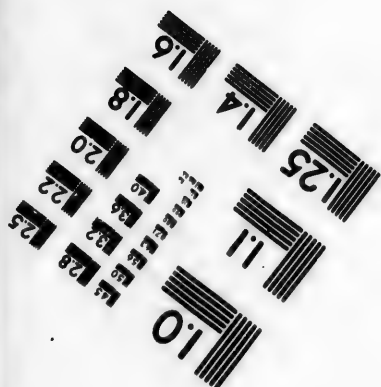
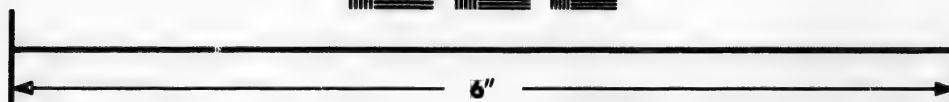
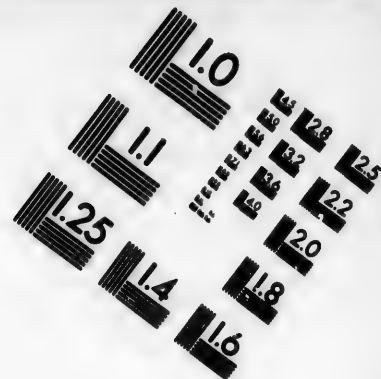
There are three market-houses in the city, the principal of which is in High street. It is a very handsome building, about a quarter of a mile in length, and is well supplied with provisions. The price of provisions is somewhat cheaper than in New York. Beef, mutton, and veal, may be quoted at from 6 to 8 cents per pound; and, generally speaking, all other articles of domestic production may be quoted as one-fifth cheaper than in the latter city.

The markets are large and well supplied; the chief is in Market street. The time of sale is from daylight to two o'clock from the 1st of April to the 1st of September, and from daylight to three o'clock the remainder of the year. No butchers are allowed to kill in the city, nor are live cattle to be driven to the city markets.

The water-works of this city are excellent. The building which contains the reservoir is in the Centre square, being the most elevated ground in the city. It occupies a square of 60 feet; from the middle there is a circular tower, 40 feet in diameter, and 60 feet high, which contains the reservoir; and this tower is terminated by a dome, which gives it a very handsome appearance. The water is conveyed to this building from the Schuylkill, a distance of nearly a mile, through a circular brick tunnel, of six feet diameter, having a fall of six inches towards the Schuylkill. The water is received from the Schuylkill into a substantial basin and canal, and from thence is raised by a steam engine to the level of the aqueduct, which conveys it to the Centre square. It is there received into another basin, and thence, by another steam engine, is elevated to the circular tower, from whence it issues through wooden pipes, in all directions, to supply the city.

The whole expence of the works was about 150,000 dollars (33,750*l.* sterling.) The work was undertaken by the corporation, who raised the funds partly by a tax, and partly by loan, allowing the subscribers to the loan six per cent. interest





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for their money, and the use of the water free for three years, for every 100 dollars subscribed.

The city is supplied with water by contract, and the contractor is obliged to supply three millions of gallons per day, if required. The annual expence is six thousand dollars for one million of gallons per day; and for any additional quantity, up to two millions, the expence is at the rate of half that sum. The engine is 40 horse power, and can raise, if necessary, four millions and a half of gallons per day; so that the supply must be abundant for every purpose.

The water is soft and good; but it is not filtered, and is, of course, sometimes muddy, though never so much so as to render it unfit for use; and it is always wholesome. It is of great importance to these works that they are the property of the public, and not subject to individual speculation, in consequence of which the supply is liberal, and there are fountains in every street, to which the whole public have access. The water can be used for watering the streets, or extinguishing fires, as often as may be necessary; while every householder, by paying a reasonable compensation, can have a hydrant in any part of his premises that he pleases, even to the attic story. In short, this water is a great luxury, and is of incalculable advantage to the health, as it certainly is to the convenience and comfort of the community.

The supply of cities with water is a subject of great importance; and it is to be hoped that the inhabitants of other places in the United States will profit by the laudable example set them by the citizens of Philadelphia, and the happy effects which have resulted from it. The power of the steam engine, properly applied, can send water to any city, and cities are generally sufficiently opulent to bear the expence.

The PHILADELPHIAN HOSPITAL, for its airiness, for its convenient accommodation for the sick and infirm, and for the neatness exhibited throughout every part of it, cannot be surpassed by any institution of the kind in the world. The plan of the building is in the form of the letter H. It is two stories high, and underneath the whole are cells for lunatics. Per-

sons labouring under any disorder of body or mind are received into this hospital, excepting such as have diseases that are contagious, and of a malignant nature; such patients, however, have the advice of the attending physicians gratis, and are supplied with medicine from the hospital dispensary. The hospital stands within the limits of the city, but it is more than a quarter of a mile removed from any of the other buildings. There are spacious walks within the inclosure for such of the patients as are in a state of convalescence.

The BETTERING HOUSE, which is under the care of the overseers of the poor, stands in the same neighbourhood, somewhat farther removed from the houses of the city. It is a spacious building of brick, with extensive walks and gardens. The poor of the city and neighbourhood are here furnished with employment, and comfortably lodged and dieted. During the severity of the winter season, many aged and reduced persons seek refuge in this place, and leave it again on the return of spring. Whilst they stay there, they are under very little restraint, and go in and out when they please: they must, however, behave orderly.

The poor-laws are administered by sixteen citizens, who are chosen annually *by the corporation*, to superintend the provision for the poor. They are empowered, with the approbation of four aldermen and two justices, to levy an assessment not exceeding, at any one time, 100 cents (4s. 6d.) on 100 dollars (22l. 10s.), or one per cent.; nor more than three dollars per head, on every free man not otherwise rated. The average annual number of paupers supported in alms-houses of this city is 1600; the expence of keeping them 70,000 dollars a year; the produce of the poor-tax for the city and county of Philadelphia 100,000 dollars.

The jail is a spacious building of common stone, 100 feet in front. It is fitted up with solitary cells, on the new plan, and the apartments are all arched, to prevent the communication of fire. Behind the building are extensive yards, which are secured by lofty walls. This prison is well regulated. Its object is to receive the vicious, and, if possible, to reclaim them to virtue; and is an admirable contrast to the sanguinary pu-

ishments of old governments, who, for even pecuniary offences, send them off to the other world to be reclaimed there. This institution does not admit offenders till after conviction, when they are received from the different parts of the state. It is hence called the State-prison. When a criminal is received, his name is put upon the record, or, to use a commercial idea, he becomes a partner in the concern, and an account is accordingly raised for him in the books. Inquiry is then made what he can do; if he can work at any trade, he is taken to the apartment where that branch is carried on, and has his task assigned him. If he can work at no trade, he is sent to saw marble. As a stimulus to industry, the convicts get credit in the books for the proceeds of their labour, and are debited with the expence of their board and clothing, which, however, is not very expensive, as every thing is conducted upon an economical plan; and when they are released, should their earnings be more than the expence of maintenance, the balance is paid to them.

Almost every trade is carried on in the prison; and the institution is so organized that every necessary of life is attended to by the convicts themselves: baking, cooking, scrubbing the rooms, and so on; and every thing is kept remarkably clean. The food is wholesome and nutritive, consisting of Indian meal, bread, and meat. The drink is molasses and water; and no spirituous liquors are admitted within the walls of the prison.

There is a separate apartment for the reception of female convicts, where the various parts of female labour are carried on, and it is otherwise under the same system of management as that for the males.

This benevolent institution is inspected twice every week by twelve persons appointed for that purpose, who are chosen annually from amongst the citizens of Philadelphia. Nor is it a difficult matter to procure these men, who readily and voluntarily take it upon them to go through the troublesome functions of the office without any fee or emolument whatever. They divide themselves into committees; each of these takes it in turn, for a stated period, to visit every part of the prison;

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and a report is made to the inspectors at large, who meet together at times regularly appointed. From the report of the committee an opinion is formed by the inspectors, who, with the consent of the judges, regulate the treatment of each individual prisoner during his confinement. This is varied according to his crime, and according to his subsequent repentance. 'The keeper,' says a late traveller, 'accompanied me into every apartment, giving, as we proceeded, the most full explanations. The scene was novel, and I had almost said delightful; but a recollection that I was viewing the consequences of vicious pursuits, checks the expression, and draws a tear for the weakness of humanity: yet I could not but be pleased, and highly so, on drawing a comparison between what I saw here, and what I have witnessed in the London prisons. Here, instead of the prisoners passing their time in idleness, or in low debauchery and gaming, all was sobriety, life, and activity. A complete manufacturing town was in fact collected within the narrow precincts of these otherwise gloomy walls. The open court was occupied by stone-cutters, chiefly negroes. It would appear, on first seeing this department only, that these were either more vicious, or more hardly dealt with in the courts of law, than their white countrymen. But the true reason of their numbers in the yard is, that few of them being mechanics, they are set to labour upon those things for which they are fitted, and which they can undertake with little previous instruction. The rooms in which the mechanic arts are carried on have a very great proportion of whites, so that crime would by no means seem to be monopolized by our darker brethren. The produce of the labour of prisoners nearly supports the whole of this extensive establishment. Some have earned a sufficiency by their own work to enable them to commence business on the expiration of their term of confinement. Those who conduct themselves with industry and propriety receive a remission of part of their sentence. Several have become honest and useful members of society. When the jailor spoke to the prisoners, they addressed him with confidence, but with proper respect. He is a plain intelligent man, liberally, though not profusely paid for his services. To have offered him mo-

ney for his trouble, would, I am sure, have been considered an insult. What a contrast does such a man afford to our prison-keepers, the majority of whom are perhaps greater criminals than those over whom they tyrannize. One fact, in connection with the prison, I have omitted to mention; and as it is a characteristic trait of national character, it ought to be recorded—white criminals will not eat with the negroes, the latter therefore have a separate table!!!

‘The medical reputation of the gentlemen connected with this establishment would be highly estimated in the first European cities.’

The library, founded by Franklin about the year 1731, now contains more than 14,000 volumes in all the various branches of literature, a philosophical apparatus, and a good beginning towards a collection of natural and artificial curiosities, besides landed property of considerable value. The building is elegant and commodious, and has a statue of Franklin in front, the donation of the late Mr. Bingham. The library is divided into shares of 40 dollars each; but the number is unlimited. The subscribers are at present upwards of 500. Besides the purchase of the share, each subscriber pays two dollars annually, to the support of the institution.

The library is open every day, except Sunday, from two o'clock to sunset, and the subscribers may either read in the library, or be accommodated with books to read in their houses. The rule relative to strangers and non-subscribers is very liberal. They may have the use of the books in the library, while it is open, free of expence, or, on depositing the value, may borrow books and peruse them at home, on paying a small sum for the use of them.

Peale's museum contains an extensive collection of the curiosities usual in such establishments, divided into three departments. The mammoth skeleton complete is a most tremendous object. There are several quart bottles filled with ashes of the paper called ‘Continental money.’ This was the circulating medium of the revolution, and by the means of which they carried on that glorious struggle. Here is Talleyrand's oath of allegiance to the United States in his

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own hand writing! a cake of portable soup, which was sent from England in 1775, for the use of the British army! Penn's curtains; and a scrap of poetry called 'The Cow Chase,' in the hand writing of the gallant and interesting André, written a few years before his execution. The portraits in this establishment are very numerous, including those of Americans of great, down to those of very limited celebrity; also, the likenesses of Paine, Arthur O'Connor, and Dr. Priestley. The style of their execution is but little creditable to the talents of the artist (Mr. Peale), and would seem to be below the standard of his ability, if we judge at least from the specimen which he has given in a fine portrait of Napoleon, after David; where, by the way, he has committed the error of substituting an American horse, marked by the very long shaggy hair near the hoofs, by which they are distinguished. The painting of the Anaconda, which was exhibited in Spring Gardens, is now here, at the house of Mr. Earl. It is certainly a first-rate production.—Mr. Sully's collection of paintings is small, but select. They are chiefly of his own execution.—The Academy of Fine Arts is a highly respectable institution, which, without the pretence and puff of its sister establishment in New York, possesses a most decided superiority. There are numerous excellent paintings, and a hall of statuary, in which are some fine specimens of Venus, the Gladiator, Apollo, &c.

This city is under great obligations to the quakers, who have given a tone to the manners of the people, different from what is to be found in most other places of equal extent. They are industrious and sober; and, though sufficiently commercial, they do not conduct their business in the same *dashing* style which is done by some commercial cities; but confine themselves within bounds, and secure what they gain. Education is on an excellent footing: besides the larger seminaries, there are numerous academies and schools throughout the city. The arts and sciences have been long cultivated. A Philosophical Society was established in the year 1769, and they have published several volumes of their transactions. The other societies of greatest importance are, the College of Physicians,

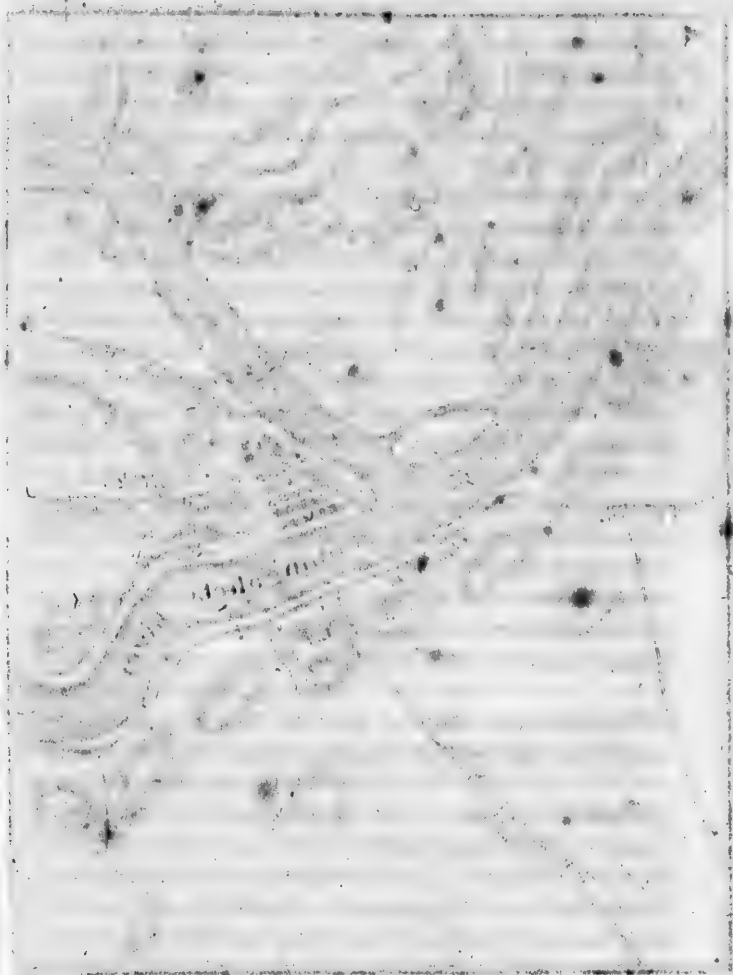
instituted for the purpose of promoting medical, anatomical, and chemical knowledge; the Pennsylvanian Society for promoting the Abolition of Slavery, and the Relief of free Negroes unlawfully held in Bondage; the Pennsylvania Academy of Fine Arts; the Agricultural Society; Premium Society; a Society for alleviating the Miseries of public Prisons; Humane Society; Marine Benevolent Society; St. Andrew's Society; Scots Thistle Society; St. Patrick's Society; Hibernian Society; St. George's Society; Walsh Society; French Benevolent Society; German Society. The Grand Lodge of Pennsylvania is established here, and there are 15 or 16 lodges of free-masons.

The police of the city is said to be better regulated than that of any other on the continent. It appears to be much better than New York. There are public scavengers, who clean the streets at stated times, and the side pavements are generally washed every morning. These are broad, and generally well paved with brick; and, the streets being lined with rows of trees, a walk through the city in a summer morning is delightful. The city is elevated 50 or 60 feet above the river, in consequence of which there is an ample descent for the water; and the streets are well supplied with common sewers, which serve to carry off the filth; and they are kept sweet by the supply of fresh water from the water-works, which is constantly pouring into them from every part of the city. This supply of water also keeps the streets pure by running along the gutters, so that almost every street has a little stream on each side of it; and this circumstance, though apparently trivial, is probably of more importance than is generally imagined.

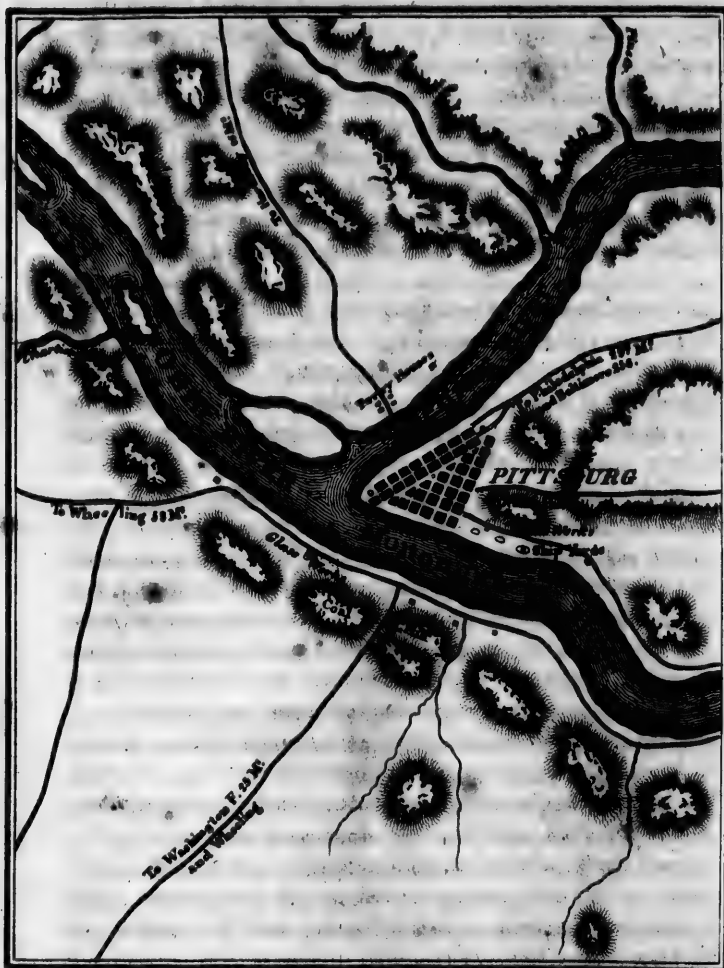
There are fourteen constables and two high constables, whose business it is to perambulate the streets, which they do with a mace in their hands, and to examine all suspicious looking persons. If such refuse to give a satisfactory account of themselves, they are taken before the mayor. There are 36 watchmen who cry the hour (to imitate which, subjects the offender to immediate imprisonment), and six other who visit their boxes to see that they perform their duty. The whole are under the direction of a captain, who attends to receive

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vagrants, rioters, and thieves. Watchmen are paid fourteen dollars (68s.) per month, fourteen-pence extra for every lamp under their care, and are supplied with a great coat: they are fined for neglect of duty. The cost for lighting and watching Philadelphia is \$5,000 dollars per annum. Circumstances have recently occurred, which, if true in all particulars, would prove the magistracy to be as corrupt as that of London in the days of Fielding.

The manufactures of this city are rising into great importance. The principal are leather of every description, a great variety of wood and iron work, ships, ropes, fermented and distilled liquors, earthen ware, tin plate, hats, stockings, and a vast variety of cloths of various descriptions. The printing business is better established here than in any other place on the continent, and gives employment to a great number of paper-mills, and all classes connected with the book trade: printers, type-founders, engravers, bookbinders, and booksellers and stationers.

The accommodations in the inns and taverns of this city are very indifferent: but strangers usually go to private boarding houses, of which there are nearly 2000. It is only since the year 1779 that any public amusements have been suffered; the old corporation being mostly quakers. There are now two theatres and an amphitheatre. The new theatre is tolerably handsome, and well supported.

The population of this city in 1817 was estimated at 130,000; and still new buildings were erecting in different parts of the suburbs.

The next considerable place in this province is *Pittsburg*, distant above 350 miles from Philadelphia. It is the gate of the western empire, and has risen into importance with a rapidity almost unparalleled. It is situated at the confluence of the Alleghany and Monongahela rivers, the junction of which forms the Ohio. It extends about three quarters of a mile along the Alleghany river, and about half a mile along the Monongahela. The site of the town is narrow, being hemmed in by hills to the eastward, about half a mile from the

Alleghany river; but there is room for it to extend along that river two miles.

The town was first laid out in 1765; but was surveyed and laid out on a new plan in 1784. The plan was meant to accommodate the town to both rivers; but it is by no means so well designed as it might have been. The streets are generally too narrow, and they cross one another at acute angles, which is both hurtful to the eye and injurious to the buildings. The value of the situation may be determined by a notice of the progress of the town. In 1800 it contained 2400 inhabitants; in 1807 it contained about 500 houses; and in 1810 it contained 11 stone buildings, 288 of brick, and 473 of frame and log; making in all 767; and the number of inhabitants was 4768. Pittsburg has, of course, nearly doubled its population in ten years; and there is every probability that this ratio will continue for a considerable time to come: so that Pittsburg will in all probability become one of the largest towns in America.

'This town,' says Mr. Fearon, 'is interesting in several points of view: from its natural situation, being at the termination of two, and the commencement of a third river, which has a direct communication with the ocean, though at the almost incredible distance of 2500 miles; its scenery, which is truly picturesque; its exhaustless possession of that first-rate material for manufactories, coal; its original situation as an early military post, and remarkable for two defeats of the British, more especially that of general Braddock by the French and Indians, in which the great Washington first distinguished himself, though but a youth and only a militia colonel; and lastly, its present importance as being the connecting link between *new* and *old* America; and though it is not at present a "Birmingham," as the natives bombastically call it, yet it certainly contains the seeds of numerous important manufactories. The published accounts of this city are so exaggerated and out of all reason, that strangers are usually disappointed on visiting it.'

Agricultural produce finds here a ready and an advantageous market. Farming, in this neighbourhood, is not the most

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profitable mode of employing capital; but it is here, as in all other parts of the union, an independent mode of life. The farmer must labour hard with his own hands. The 'help' which he pays for will be dear, and not of that kind to be relied on, in the mode of its execution, as in England. This may not proceed from a worse state of character, but a *difference in condition*, as compared with our working class. They are paid about fourteen dollars per month, and board. In many instances they expect to sit down with the master, to live as well, and to be upon terms of equality with every branch of the family; and if this should be departed from, the scythe and the sickle will be laid down in the midst of harvest. There is a class of men throughout the western country, called 'merchants,' who, in the summer and autumn months, collect flour, butter, cheese, pork, beef, whiskey, and every species of farming produce, which they sent in flats and keel-boats to the New Orleans market. The demand created by this trade, added to a large domestic consumption, insures the most remote farmer a certain market. Some of these speculators have made large fortunes.

In the coal hills, the mineral is found in a horizontal position, lying at present above level. It is worked by adits or openings into the side of the hills, which draw off the water. The stream being boarded over, the coal is wheeled out in barrows, and *tripped* from an overhanging stage into one-horse waggons. The waggons are without wheels, and the horses, if blind, are preferred, the hills being so steep, that in case of the least start, nothing can save them from destruction.

Rain falls here almost incessantly. The smoke is also extreme, giving to the town and its inhabitants a very sombre aspect; though it is said to be very healthy. The diseases are bilious remittent fevers, rheumatic among the aged, a few cases of bronchocele which affects the thyroid gland of females, and inflammatory sore throat in wet weather. Medical aid is easy of attainment, though not always of the most valuable kind. There is of doctors, as of lawyers, too large a supply, and of course many of them very inefficient. A physician here is also a surgeon, prepares his own medicines, and practises in

every department of the profession: generally they are neither so well educated, nor in such respectable circumstances, as our medical men.

Besides the supply of the town and country round with manufactures, Pittsburg has a vast export trade, principally down the Ohio. As the greater part of the manufactures are in a progressive state of improvement, workmen can hardly go wrong by coming to this place. They are sure of work and good wages at all times. The following new branches of manufacture might be established to advantage: chaise and chair making, upholstery, piano-fortes and other musical instruments, stocking frames; and the following are susceptible of augmentation: cotton and wool spinning and weaving, and stocking-making.

The manufacturing interest of Pittsburg is that of the United States. Many of the manufactories originated during the late war, and all of them flourished during its continuance. At present they are generally upon the wane. A document was issued from their committee in 1817, setting forth their distress in the strongest language—from which it would appear to equal that of our manufacturing classes, even during the worst period of their sufferings. Mr. Ephrim Portland, the prothonotary of this town, presented Mr. Fearon with the following list of manufactories up to January, 1818, published by the authority of the committee.

Manufactories in and near the city of Pittsburgh, in the State of Pennsylvania, in the Year 1817.

Manufactures.	Number of Men employed.	Yearly Amount.
		Dollars.
1 Augur-maker - - -	6	5,500
1 Bellows-maker - - -	3	10,000
18 Blacksmiths - - -	74	75,100
3 Brewers - - -	17	72,000
3 Brush-makers - - -	7	8,600
1 Button-maker - - -	6	6,250
2 Cotton-spinners and carders -	36	25,518
11 Copper-smiths and tin-plate-workers - - -	100	200,000
7 Cabinet-makers - - -	43	40,000
1 Carrier - - -	4	12,000
2 Cutlers - - -	6	3,400
4 Iron-founders - - -	37	180,000
3 Gun-smiths and bridlebit makers -	14	13,800
2 Flint-glass manufacturers - -	82	110,000
3 Green (window) ditto - -	92	130,000
2 Hardware - - -	17	18,000
7 Hatters - - -	49	44,640
1 Locksmith - - -	7	12,000
1 Linen - - -	20	25,000
7 Nail - - -	47	174,716
1 Paper - - -	40	23,000
1 Pattern - - -	21	1,500
3 Plane - - -	6	57,600
1 Patten - - -	5	8,000
1 Rope manufacturer - - -	8	15,000
1 Spinning machine - - -	6	6,000
1 Spanish Brown - - -	2	6,720
1 Silver plater - - -	40	20,000
2 Steam-engine-makers - - -	70	125,000
6 Saddlers - - -	60	86,000
5 Silversmiths and watch-menders -	17	12,000
14 Shoe and boot - - -	109	120,000
7 Tanners and curriers - - -	47	58,800
4 Tallow-chandlers - - -	7	32,600
4 Tobacconists - - -	28	21,000
5 Waggon-makers - - -	21	28,500
2 Weavers - - -	9	14,562
3 Windsor chair - - -	23	42,600
2 Woollen - - -	30	17,000
1 Wire-drawer - - -	12	6,000
1 White Lead - - -	6	40,000
Total number of workmen, 1280.—Ditto, amount,		1,896,396 Dollars.

Mr. Fearon, when at Pittsburg, says, "At Messrs. Page and Bakewell's glass warehouse I saw chandeliers and numerous articles in cut glass of a very splendid description; among the latter was a pair of decanters, cut from a London pattern, the price of which will be eight guineas. It is well to bear in mind, that the demand for these articles of elegant luxury lies *in the western states!* the inhabitants of eastern America being still importers from the "old country." What interesting themes of reflection are offered by such facts to the philosopher as well as to the politician! Not thirty years since, the whole right bank of the Ohio was termed the "Indian side." Spots in Tennessee, in Ohio, and Kentucky, that within the life time of even young men, witnessed only the arrow and the scalping-knife, now present to the traveller articles of elegance and modes of luxury which might rival the displays of London and Paris; while, within the last half century, the beasts of the forest, and man more savage than the beast, were the only inhabitants of the whole of that immense tract peculiarly denominated the "Western Country;" which is now partially inhabited, and promises soon to be generally so, by man—civilized man, possessed of the arts and the pursuits of civilized life. It is already the refuge of the oppressed from every other nation. May it become the seat of enlightenment, of private virtue and public liberty; and it may then, *but not till then*, expect to rank among the greatest, the most powerful, and the most respected of the nations of the earth!

"The rapid and unexampled progress of this country, presents a valuable and an extraordinary political lesson to the world at large. It shews us what a nation *may* become when the principles of its government are *cheap* and liberal, when its resources are called forth, and its powers expanded by the means of a system emanating from the people, and not repressed by establishments whose only recommendation is their antiquity, nor compelled to contribute towards the support of a system which deprives them of the legitimate reward of their industry. But to return to less speculative and more practical detail.

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"The state of trade is at present dull; but that there is a great deal of business done must be evident from the quantity of "dry goods" and "grocery stores," many of the proprietors of which have stocks as large as the majority of London retail dealers. They are literally stuffed with goods of English manufacture, consisting of articles of the most varied kind, from a man's coat or a lady's gown, down to a whip or an oyster knife. *Rents*, of course, vary according to situation: houses in the best stands for business are from 400 to 800 dollars per annum; others are from 150 to 350: two rooms, or a very small house a short distance from town, would be 80 dollars per annum.

"It is difficult to form a judgment whether there is an opening in any of the present established businesses. One fact strongly in favour of the stability of the town is, *that there has not been a bankruptcy in it for three years!!!* a singular contrast this with New York, in which the last published list of insolvents contained upwards of 400 names."

Lancaster is situated on a fertile plain, 62 miles to the westward of Philadelphia. It is built on a regular plan, the streets crossing one another at right angles. The houses are mostly constructed of brick, but some few are of stone. The inhabitants amount to 5405, and are mostly of German origin. The public buildings are seven places for public worship, a court-house, jail, and market-house; and there is a poor-house, a very humane institution, situated on the Conestoga creek, a mile from the town. The principal manufactures are fire-arms, particularly rifle-barrelled guns; and there are several tanyards, distilleries, and breweries. This is, at present, the seat of government for Pennsylvania, but, by an act of the legislature, it is to be removed to Harrisburg; and 30,000 dollars have been appropriated to erect public buildings there.

Harrisburg is situated on the east branch of the Susquehanna, 97 miles from Philadelphia. It is handsomely laid out on the plan of Philadelphia, having four streets running parallel with the river, named Front, Second, and so on; and these are crossed by others at right angles, called Mulberry, Chesnut, Market, Walnut, Locust, and Pine. The houses

are mostly built of brick, and have a good appearance, and the town is rapidly increasing, particularly since the act of legislation constituting it the seat of government for the state. The inhabitants of the township amount to 3287. There is an elegant court-house and stone jail built; and the public buildings for the accommodation of the state government, now erecting, will be the most elegant structures in the state. Harrisburg was laid out in 1785, and has made great progress ever since; and from its commanding and central situation, it will, in all probability, become one of the largest inland towns in America.

Carlisle is situated on a large plain, having somewhat the appearance of Lancaster. It is regularly laid out, with streets crossing one another at right angles; and contains, by the last census, 2401 inhabitants. The houses are partly built of brick and partly of wood, and have a very respectable appearance. The public buildings are, a college, a court-house, jail, and five places for public worship. The college is named Dickenson, in honour of a gentleman of that name who was its founder, and is esteemed an excellent seminary of learning. Its funds are about 10,000 dollars in certificates, and the state made a grant in support of it, of 10,000 acres of land. A philosophical apparatus, and library, consisting of nearly 3000 volumes, are attached to it. Dr. Nesbit, a Scots gentleman of high estimation, was several years president of this college. There are a principal and three professors, and the students amount to above one hundred.

York and Reading are also considerable towns, and are increasing in wealth and population.

Trade and Resources.—Pennsylvania is said to be one of the greatest manufacturing states in the Union. Domestic manufactures are general throughout the state; but there are many manufactures on a large scale, some of which may be enumerated. Of iron there are about 30 furnaces, besides numerous forges, slitting mills, and trip hammers. Of wood, all sorts of furniture, and implements of husbandry. Of leather, boots, shoes, saddles, bridles, harness, &c. Of wool, a variety of cloths, stockings, and hats. Together with a variety of other

articles, such as malt liquors, spirits, glass, ashes, maple-sugar, musquets, powder, shot, balls, cannon, bells, &c. &c.

The exports consist principally of grain, flour, iron utensils, flax-seed, soap and candles, lumber, beef, pork, &c. The principal articles of export to Britain are grain and flour, and some cotton from the southern states. The imports consist of East and West India and China goods; wine, gin, &c. from the continent of Europe; and manufactures from Britain; of which the quantity imported is immense, and is yearly increasing. The value of imports is about 12,000,000 dollars annually, of which those from Britain are a full half; from whence we may infer the utility of the trade to both countries, and the importance of a good understanding between them.

According to the report of the assessors, the value of houses and lands in this state in 1815 was estimated at 846,688,000 dollars; the land being valued at 20 dollars an acre. The gross amount of duties on merchandise in the same year was 7,267,450 dollars. There were 77,199 tons of shipping employed in foreign trade, and 650 tons of small vessels employed in the coasting trade.

Education.—There are four colleges, besides a number of academies, in this state. A large tract of land is appropriated for the establishments of free schools; yet many of the Germans and Irish are extremely ignorant.

Religion.—We have already mentioned the prevailing sects in this province, which consist of quakers or friends, presbyterians, episcopalians, German Lutherans, and Moravians. The latter are of German extraction, and are collected in distinct societies under peculiar laws. Nazareth, Bethlehem, and Lititz are their principal settlements. The tunkers, dippers, or tumblers, are a harmless sect of German baptists. The men wear the White Friars' dress, and the women that of the nuns; and both, like them, take the vow of celibacy. When they break this vow and marry, they are obliged to leave their cells and live amongst the married people: they mostly reside at Ephrata, in the county of Lancaster. The Mennonists are also Germans; they reside at Germantown.

Government.—The civil government is vested in a legislature, consisting of a senate and house of representatives. The senators are chosen for four years, and the representatives annually, by the people. The executive authority is vested in a governor, who is also elected by the people, and holds his office for three years. The constitution declares, 'That all men are born equally free and independent; that all power is inherent in the people; that all men have a natural and indefeasible right to worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences, and no man can of right be compelled to attend, erect, or support any place of worship, or to maintain any ministry, against his consent; that no human authority can, in any case whatever, control or interfere with the rights of conscience, and that no preference shall ever be given, by law, to any religious establishment, or modes of worship; that elections shall be free and equal; that trial by jury shall be inviolate; that no law shall ever be made to restrain the liberty of the press; that the people shall be secure against all unwarrantable searches, and excessive bail shall not be required; that the legislature shall provide by law for the establishment of schools throughout the state, in such a manner as the poor may be taught gratis, the arts and sciences shall be promoted.'

All this is certainly very excellent in theory; but a late intelligent traveller, who examined the political machine of this state with great attention, gives a very unfavourable opinion of the mode of its operation. It appears that the governor has the gift of from forty to fifty offices, amongst which are those of recorder, alderman, and indeed every minor as well as important civil occupation. The office is therefore an object of severe contest; and each of the different contending parties endeavour to secure the choice of *inspectors* of the ballot to their own friends, as upon this they judge of the *result of the general election*!

The whole state is divided into 37 counties, and upwards of 500 townships.

History.—Pennsylvania was granted by king Charles II. to William Penn, son of the famous admiral Penn, in considera-

tion of his father's services to the crown. Mr. Penn's petition for the grant was presented to the king in 1680; and after considerable delays, occasioned by lord Baltimore's agent, who apprehended it might interfere with the Maryland patent, the charter of Pennsylvania received the royal signature on the 4th of March, 1681. To secure his title against all claims, and prevent future altercation, Mr. Penn procured a quit-claim deed from the duke of York, of all the lands, covered by his own patent, to which the duke could have the least pretensions. This deed bears date, August 21, 1682. On the 24th of the same month, he obtained from the duke, by deed of feoffment, Newcastle, with twelve miles of the adjacent territory, and the lands south to the Hoarkills. In December following, Mr. Penn effected an union of the lower counties with the province of Pennsylvania.

The first frame of government for Pennsylvania is dated in 1682. By this form, all legislative powers were vested in the governor and freemen of the province, in the form of a provincial council, and a general assembly. The council was to consist of 72 members, chosen by the freemen; of which the governor, or his deputy, was to be perpetual president, with a treble vote. One-third of this council went out of office every year, and their seats were supplied by new elections.

The general assembly was at first to consist of all the freemen, afterwards of 200, and never to exceed 500.

In 1683, Mr. Penn offered another frame of government, in which the number of representatives was reduced, and the governor vested with a negative upon all bills passed in assembly. By several specious arguments, the people were persuaded to accept this frame of government.

Not long after, a dispute between Mr. Penn and lord Baltimore required the former to go to England, and he committed the administration of government to five commissioners, taken from the council. In 1686, Mr. Penn required the commissioners to dissolve the frame of government; but not being able to effect his purpose, he, in 1688, appointed captain John Bakewell his deputy. From this period, the proprietors usually resided in England, and administered the government by

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deputies, who were devoted to their interest. Jealousies arose between the people and their governors, which never ceased till the late revolution. The primary cause of these jealousies was an attempt of the proprietary to extend his own power, and abridge that of the assembly; and the consequence was incessant disputes and dissensions in the legislature.

In 1693 the king and queen assumed the government in their own hands; and three years after, a new form of government was established. In 1701, the proprietor, Mr. Penn, granted a charter of privileges, which continued till the revolution. The Indians, about the same time, confirmed the grants of land made to the proprietors in former years. Although the government of the proprietaries was abolished at the revolution, yet they still possess many large tracts of excellent land.

DELAWARE.

Situation and Extent. THE state of Delaware is situated between 38 deg. 29 min. and 39 deg. 47 min. north lat., and 1 deg. 15 min. and 1 deg. 56 min. east long. It is bounded on the north by the territorial line, which divides it from Pennsylvania; on the east by Delaware river and bay; on the south by a due east and west line, from cape Henlopen in lat. 38 deg. 30 min. to the middle of the peninsula, which line divides the state from Worcester county in Maryland; and on the west by Maryland, from which it is divided by a line drawn from the western termination of the southern boundary line, northwards up the said peninsula, till it touch or form a tangent to the western part of the periphery of the above-mentioned territorial circle. Its greatest length

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is 100 miles, and greatest breadth 37; its area being about 1800 square miles, or about 1,152,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—The face of the greater part of the country is level, abounding with swamps and stagnant waters; but toward the northern part it is more elevated, and near its extremity there is a considerable chain of hills. There are numerous creeks in the state, but no rivers of consequence. The principal one is Brandywine creek, which falls into the Delaware at Wilmington, and on which there are numerous mills and manufactories.

The soil, in the southern part, is low and sandy, and entirely free of stones; in the northern part it is more diversified, and mixed with clay and loam.

The climate partakes of the configuration of the country. The southern part has a humid atmosphere, often foggy and unwholesome; but it is mild and temperate in winter. The northern part is agreeable and healthy.

The greater part of the inhabitants of this state are devoted to agricultural pursuits, and they have rendered it very productive. The principal produce is wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, oats, and flax. Grasses are abundant, and thrive very luxuriantly, furnishing food for many cattle; and every sort of vegetable, common to the states already described, thrive well here.

Canal.—A canal was projected across this state and part of Maryland, to form a junction between the Delaware and Chesapeake, and it is partly cut; but the work was stopped for want of funds. It may probably be well that it is so; for it was projected on too small a scale, and, in process of time, will probably give way to one that will admit of sloop navigation. There cannot be a finer situation for a canal. The distance between the Delaware and Chesapeake is only about 18 or 20 miles, and the country is nearly level, so that few locks will be requisite; and were a canal cut, it would form a connection between two of the finest rivers in America, and be a link in the chain of an internal navigation of vast extent.

Population, &c.—The population of this state in 1817 was 108,334, which is 60 persons to a square mile. There are no,

obvious characteristic differences between the inhabitants of this state and the Pennsylvanians.

Chief Towns.—There are no towns of much importance in this district. *Dover*, in the county of Kent, is the seat of government. It stands on Jones' creek, a few miles from the Delaware river, and consists of about 100 houses, principally of brick. Four streets intersect each other at right angles, in the centre of the town, whose incidencies form a spacious parade, on the east side of which is an elegant state-house of brick. The town has a lively appearance, and drives on a considerable trade with Philadelphia. Wheat is the principal article of export. The landing is five or six miles from the town of Dover. *Newcastle*, *Wilmington*, *Lewistown*, and *Georgetown*, are lively, thriving little towns.

Trade and Resources.—Flour is the principal manufacture carried on in the state. The mills on Brandywine creek are in great perfection, giving employment to upwards of 600 hands; and they manufacture upwards of half a million of bushels annually. The other articles consist principally of iron, paper, and lumber. In these a very extensive trade is carried on, principally with the other states and the West Indies.

The value of houses and lands in this state in 1817 was 14,493,620 dollars, the land being valued at 13 dollars per acre. The gross revenue was 43,282 dollars. There were 7543 tons of shipping employed in foreign trade, and 742 in the coasting trade.

Education.—A very considerable fund is appropriated by the state to the support of schools, which are pretty numerous, and there are two flourishing academies; one at Wilmington, and the other at Newark.

Religion.—Presbyterianism is the principal religion in this state. The episcopalians are also numerous; and there are some quakers, baptists, and members of the Swedish church.

Government.—Delaware is divided into three counties and 24 districts, called *hundreds*. The constitution guarantees equal rights to all the citizens, without regard to property or religious opinions. The government is vested in a governor, a senate, and house of representatives, which are elected by

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ballot, and 'every white freeman, of the age of 21, who has resided in the state two years next before the election, shall enjoy the right of an elector. The sons of persons so qualified shall, betwixt the ages of 21 and 22, be entitled to vote, though they have paid no taxes.'

History.—This state was first settled by a colony of Swedes and Finns about the year 1627; but in 1655 they were dispossessed by the Dutch. After the capture of New York by the English, the authority of the Dutch was superseded; and this state in 1674, which was then called the *New Netherlands*, was granted by Charles II. to his brother the duke of York, who sold it to William Penn. The three counties which constitute this state were therefore considered as part of Pennsylvania until the revolution, when it was declared an independent state.

STATE OF OHIO.

Situation and Extent. **THIS** state is bounded on the north by lake Erie and Michigan territory; on the south and south-east by the Ohio river; on the east by Pennsylvania; and on the west by the Indiana territory. It extends from north lat. 38 deg. 30 min. to 39 deg. 57 min., and from 3 deg. 25 min. to 7 deg. 37 min. west long. Its length is 228 miles, and its breadth 227; its square contents about 45,000 square miles, or 28,800,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—That fine river the Ohio has been already described. It is 795 miles from Pittsburg to the falls, and its medium breadth is 650 yards. It receives the waters of very considerable rivers between the fall and the Mississippi, viz. on the Kentucky side, Salt river, navigable 50 miles; Green river, navigable 160 miles; Cumberland river, navigable

the 800 or 900 miles; and Tennessee river, navigable 1200 or 1400 miles: on the Indiana side, Blue river, navigable 40 miles; and the Wabash, navigable upwards of 200 miles. The velocity of the current depends upon the quantity of water, which is exceedingly various. In spring and fall, particularly in spring, it rises to the astonishing height of from 40 to 60 feet, when the velocity is augmented in proportion. The greatest velocity seems not to exceed four miles an hour. The Ohio abounds with a great variety of fish, among which are catfish, pike, perch, and sturgeon; and on the banks are great numbers of wild turkeys, geese, ducks, pheasants, partridges, &c.

The Miami of the lakes runs through the northern part of the state, and appears to be a very interesting river, with rich banks. It rises in the Indiana territory, a little beyond the state line, where there is a portage of eight miles only to the Wabash. It continues a north-east course to fort Defiance, where it is joined by the Au Glaize river, a considerable stream from the southward, which rises near the head of the Great Miami. From fort Miami the river runs a north-east course of 60 miles, when it falls into lake Erie, through Miami bay. The bay extends about 12 miles into the interior of the country; is from half a mile to three miles wide, and deep enough for vessels of 80 or 40 tons. The river is navigable for long boats more than 100 miles.

The section of country bounding on the Ohio river, from 25 miles on either side of Cincinnati, and extending back about 100 miles directly north, to the late Indian boundary line, (which, according to treaty, is now extinguished,) is generally an excellent body of land, and is well settled, though but small improvements are yet made, except in a few particular places near towns. The land is closely timbered, except near the head waters of the two Miamis, where there is a beautiful champaign country. The prairies, or natural meadows, are here of considerable extent. Grazing is the chief occupation of the inhabitants. The price of land varies very much, according to situation and the proximity of townships. Farms which are called *improved* can be bought at from 8 to 30 dollars per acre: the *improvements* often con-

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sist of the erection of rough log buildings, and about from 12 to 20 acres under middling cultivation. Buildings are included in the price per acre. The next class of farms have from 20 to 50 acres under cultivation: the proportion of arable and wood is about two-thirds, of meadow and pasturage nearly equal proportions. Any of the land is here capable, by culture, of being turned into meadow. Limestone abounds: coal and iron have not yet been discovered, except in the eastern part of the state.

There are large prairies in Ross county, on the north branch of Paint creek, near Chillicothe; these prairies are from five to eight miles square: in them there is not a shrub to be seen. They produce a grass growing thick, and about four feet high, which makes excellent fodder: it is similar to Massachusetts upland grass, and is there called English hay. These prairies are filled with herds of cattle fattening for the Baltimore and Philadelphia markets, which are sold in this state, on the hoof, for about three dollars per hundred weight. The chief expence of pasturage consists in a man's wages to look after the herds, twice a week, giving them salt, &c.

The banks of the Ohio are generally heavily timbered. The principal kinds of timber are oak, hickory, walnut, mulberry, chesnut, ash, cherry, locust, sugar-tree, &c.; and the sycamore, towering above the whole, grows here to an astonishing size. 'I noticed,' says Melish, 'the remains of a very large sycamore tree in the neighbourhood of Pittsburg, and I saw most surprising specimens on the banks of this river. I did not measure any of them; but the editor of the Pittsburg Navigator, to whose testimony full faith may be given, mentions that he measured several from 10 to 16 feet in diameter. A gentleman from Marietta told him that he knew of one 60 feet in circumference, and that, in the hollow of another, he had turned himself round, with a pole in his hand 10 feet long. Into the hollow of another 12 men rode on horseback, in June, 1806, and the fourteenth was only prevented by the skittishness of his horse!'

The trees produced by the best class of land are honey-locust, black walnut, and beech; by second quality, sugar-

tree, sycamore or butter-wood, and white-wood, used for building and joiners' work; the third quality produces oak. Throughout this state there is little under or brush-wood, caused by the height and spreading tops of the trees, which prevent the sun penetrating to the ground, and nourishing inferior articles of vegetation.

With regard to the seasons, they are said to have severe winters of from three to four months, with a keen dry air, and cloudless sky; during summer excessive heat, (thermometer in the shade, 80 to 96 deg.) with heavy dews at night; springs, cold and heavy rains; autumns, fine, followed by '*Indian summer*,' which is truly delightful. In this state there is scarcely an elevation which can be called a hill, with exception of slight bluffs on the margin of rivers. The dreary monotony of limited views of such endless uniformity produces sensations of the most depressing melancholy. The atmosphere, after a hot day, causes head-aches, which frequently terminate in an intermittent fever. A man's being *sick*, (the term applied to every species of illness,) is as common in this country, as being in distress is in England. 'In regard to healthiness of situation,' says a late writer, 'there is considerable variety, as the appearance of the inhabitants will in some measure indicate; though as a general characteristic, I would say, there is a want of sound regular health, at least if our English ideas of ruddy cheeks are to be taken as a criterion. The people are of a tall, *vaulty* aspect, and seem, even during their most active occupations, to be the victims of fever and ague.

'Of the existence of minerals, and to what extent and variety, at present but little is known. Judging from the beds of the rivers, and quality of the water, I should presume that coal must be abundant. Salt is found in several situations, particularly on the Kenhaway. The common order of the strata is, first, sandstone, then limestone, argillaceous schist, and coal. The wild animals are neither numerous nor troublesome; though the wolf and the squirrel are still depredators: but the sport afforded in capturing them, and the addition which the flesh of the latter makes to the family

stock of provisions, compensate for their lawless invasions of the rights of property.'

Ohio is a new settled country, and has long been the favourite district to which the current of emigration has been directed. We have hitherto avoided giving any particular direction or advice to the emigrant, as we intend to reserve this subject, and to make it a distinct article. We, will, however, in this place give some account of the different districts into which this state is divided, and an enumeration of the chief towns in each.

*Districts.**Chief Towns.*

Connecticut Reserve,
Steubenville District,

Warren.
Canton, New Lisbon, Steubenville, St. Clairsville.

Zanesville District,

New Philadelphia, Coshocton, Zanesville.

Marietta District,
Ohio Company's Purchase,
Chillicothe District,

Marietta.
Athens, Gallipolia.
Newark, Worthington, New Lancaster.

Virginia Military Lands,

Franklinton, Chillicothe, Zenia, West Union, Williamsburg.

Symmes' Purchase,

Lebanon, Deerfield, Hamilton, Cincinnati.

Cincinnati District,

Dayton.

SYMMES' PURCHASE is one of the most judicious that has ever been made in the state of Ohio. It lies between the two Miami rivers, about 20 miles in breadth; and extends from the Ohio into the interior of the country, about 30 miles. It contains one of the best bodies of land in the whole state, and is now nearly settled up. Land is consequently pretty high, and may be rated at five dollars per acre, uncleared. In this purchase, like that by the Ohio company, there is a reserve for a school, and another for a church.

The CINCINNATI DISTRICT is situated to the westward of Symmes' purchase, and the United States land-office is in Cin-

cinnati. This district is partly in the Indiana territory, but mostly in the state of Ohio, and contains a body of most excellent land. It is bounded on the west by a line drawn from opposite the mouth of Kentucky river, to where the Indian north boundary line intersects the western line of the state of Ohio, and contains about 3000 square miles.

These two districts constitute what is called the *Miami country*, which, in point of soil, climate, and natural advantages, is probably inferior to none in the United States, and few are equal to it. The soil of this district is reckoned, upon the whole, as the best in the state of Ohio. It is rated, in the state books, in this way: in 100 parts, 6 are first rate, 70 second rate, and 24 third rate land. The face of the country is agreeably uneven, but not mountainous; and the country has a plentiful supply of useful minerals, particularly iron. There are also several mineral springs.

The whole of this country has been settled up in little more than 20 years, and it will afford an idea of the value of the country to state, that the inhabitants, of course mostly all emigrants, now amount to nearly 40,000. Hamilton county, a small district, consisting of little more than 300 square miles, contains upwards of 15,000, being more than 50 to the square mile.

The town of *Cincinnati* is elegantly situated on a first and second bank on the north side of the Ohio river, along which it extends nearly half a mile, and as far back in the country. The site of the town is elevated from 70 to 120 feet above low water mark, and is never overflowed. The land and water around it exhibit a very handsome appearance. The Ohio is here three quarters of a mile wide; and Licking river, a considerable stream in Kentucky, falls into it right opposite. The streets of Cincinnati are broad, crossing one another at right angles; and the greater part of the houses being of brick, it has a very handsome appearance. The streets, however, are not yet paved, except the side walks, on which account they are unpleasant in muddy weather; but that is an evil which will soon be remedied. Cincinnati was laid out about 21 years ago, since which it has made rapid progress, and now contains

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about 400 houses, and 2283 inhabitants. The public buildings are, a court-house, jail, bank, three market-houses, and some places for public worship, two cotton factories, and some considerable breweries and distilleries. The taverns are not numerous, but there are upwards of 30 dry goods stores, in which from 200,000 to 250,000 dollars worth of imported goods are disposed of annually.

This is, next to Pittsburg, the greatest place for manufactures and mechanical operations on the river, and the professions exercised are nearly as numerous as at Pittsburg. There are masons and stone-cutters, brick-makers, carpenters, cabinet-makers, coopers, turners, machine-makers, wheel-wrights, smiths and nailors, copper-smiths, tin-smiths, silver-smiths, gun-smiths, clock and watch-makers, tanners, saddlers, boot and shoe-makers, glovers and breeches-makers, butchers, bakers, brewers, distillers, cotton-spinners, weavers, dyers, tailors, printers, bookbinders, rope-makers, tobacconists, soap-boilers, candle-makers, comb-makers, painters, pot and pearl ash-makers.

These branches are mostly all increasing, and afford good wages to the journeymen. Carpenters and cabinet-makers have one dollar per day and their board; masons have two dollars per 1000 for laying bricks and their board; when they board themselves, they have about four dollars per 1000. Other classes have from one to one dollar twenty-five cents per day, according to the nature of the work.

Porter brewing could be augmented, but it would first be necessary to have bottles, as the people here prefer malt liquor in the bottled state. A manufactory of wool hats would probably succeed, and that of stockings would do remarkably well, provided frame smith-work were established along with it—not else. As the people are becoming wealthy and polished in their manners, probably a manufactory of piano-fortes would do upon a small scale.

THE VIRGINIAN MILITARY LANDS are bounded by the Indian boundary line on the north, by the Ohio on the south, by the Cincinnati district and Symmes' purchase on the west, and by the Chillicothe district on the east. It is about 120

miles long, and nearly 60 broad; and contains upwards of 6000 square miles, or nearly 4,000,000 of acres. The principal settlers are from Virginia, Kentucky, Pennsylvania, and Jersey; the inhabitants amount to about 48,000, and are rapidly increasing in number, in wealth, and improvements. The country in the immediate neighbourhood of Chillicothe is really beautiful. The plain on which it stands, consisting of about 10,000 acres, is as level as a bowling-green; and it is bounded on the west, north-west, and south-east by pretty high hills, from whence there are charming views. The Sciota is a clear stream, about 200 yards broad, with a gravelly bottom, and abounds with fish, so that it is both useful and ornamental to the town.

The town *Chillicothe* is built on these lands, and is laid out on a pretty large scale, and a great number of out-lots are attached to it. The plan is regular, the streets crossing one another at right angles, and every square is divided into four parts by lanes crossing one another also at right angles, and at equal distances between the streets. This must be a great advantage, as it gives the possessor of every lot a back entry. The streets are 66 feet wide, the alleys $16\frac{1}{2}$; the lots contain four acres each.

Chillicothe was one of the first settled towns in the state of Ohio, and was for a considerable time the seat of government; it now consists of about 250 houses, and contains 1360 inhabitants, of whom 126 are free people of colour.

The public buildings are a court-house, jail, academy, three churches, and a market-house. There are two rope walks, one cotton factory, one wool factory, one nail factory, one pottery, several distilleries, and four tan yards, and these are all thriving establishments. There are good mechanics in all the other branches calculated for the country. There are six taverns and nineteen stores; and this is a very general market for the surplus produce of the country, consisting mostly of flour of an excellent quality, pork, &c. A great proportion of the inhabitants are from Virginia and Maryland, and a number from Pennsylvania; there are but few New Englanders or foreigners.

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CHILlicothe DISTRICT is bounded by Canton district on the north; by Zanesville district and the Ohio company's purchase on the east; by the Ohio river south; and by the Virginia military lands on the west; which are divided from Chillicothe district by the Scioto river. The length from north to south is 145 miles, and the breadth from east to west 42: it contains about 5000 square miles, or about 3,200,000 acres. The northern part, being nearly one-third of this district, is part of the United States military lands, and is generally a good soil. Part of it is level and marshy; but it is free from swamps, and, being nearly all appropriated to agriculture, will soon be drained and healthy. It abounds with springs of excellent water, and numerous rivulets. To the south of this runs a stripe of land about three miles broad, and 42 miles long, which was appropriated to the relief of such as had to abandon their settlements in the time of the war, and take refuge in other places, and is thence called refugee land. It is also good land; but there is a large swamp in the middle of it, between Walnut creek, a branch of the Scioto, and Licking creek, a branch of the Muskingum. From thence to Chillicothe is an undulating country, abounding in hill and dale, and so continues to the Ohio, the hills increasing in size as the country approaches that river. The soil is in general good throughout the whole tract, the best of it being along the Ohio and Scioto rivers, which for that reason has the greatest number of settlements; but the whole is settling rapidly. There are large beds of limestone and freestone in the district, and these are interspersed with beds of clay, which retain the water, and this circumstance gives the country a preference over Kentucky. Iron ore is plentiful, and it is supposed the hills abound with coal.

The whole is well watered, abounding in springs and small streams, having excellent situations for mill seats; the Ohio washes it on the south, a distance of 60 miles; and the Scioto washes it on the west its whole length. The Scioto is a very beautiful stream. It has a fine gentle current throughout its whole course, and is navigable for keel-boats to Chillicothe, and for smaller craft nearly to its source. There are several

mineral springs in the district; the chief are a salt spring, and a sulphur spring, not far from Chillicothe.

THE OHIO COMPANY'S PURCHASE extends along the Ohio river, including its windings, about 140 miles, but in a direct line it is only about 70. It extends west from Marietta 48, and north about 12 miles, the whole length from south to north being 80 miles. The area is about 1700 square miles, containing about a million of acres. The territory is laid out into townships of six miles square, and in each there is a reservation of 640 acres of land for a church, and as much for a school; and two townships near the centre of the purchase, on Hockhocking river, have been reserved for a college. On this reserve Athens is now built.

This tract was purchased from the United States for one dollar an acre, and the company were principally guided in their choice of the situation, by the commercial advantages which appeared to result from having the command of several fine rivers, particularly the Ohio and Muskingum; without perhaps duly reflecting that agriculture takes the precedence of commerce. Before there can be trade there must be something to trade in. Certain it is they fixed upon one of the worst situations in the state of Ohio, and, notwithstanding the cheapness of the purchase, most of the proprietors have found it a losing concern. The population is increasing, but not nearly in an equal degree to other parts of the state. The inhabitants amount at present to about 12,000. The climate is very agreeable, and is quite healthy. The whole district abounds with finely variegated scenery.

The largest town in this district is *Galliopolis*, which is beautifully situated on a second bank of the Ohio. It is laid out on a good plan: there is a square of eight acres in the centre, and the building ground is divided into squares of five acres each, by streets of 66 feet wide, crossing each other at right angles. The number of houses is about 70, and the inhabitants 300. The public buildings are a court-house, and the academy; which last is to contain a room for a church, one for a military academy, and one for a masonic hall.

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MARIETTA DISTRICT is situated between the Steubenville district and the Ohio company's purchase. It extends into the interior of the country about 30 miles, and contains about 860 square miles. The Ohio washes it on the south-east about 60 miles. The soil here is much superior to the Ohio company's lands. It is handsomely watered, the principal river being the Little Muskingum; and though it is only about half as large as the company's purchase, it contains nearly as many inhabitants, and is more likely to increase.

The town of *Marietta* is very handsomely situated at the confluence of the Muskingum and Ohio rivers, of both of which it commands a fine view. That part of the town which lies next the Ohio is elevated above the bed of the river 45 feet; and yet, such is the rise of the water in some seasons, that it has been twice flooded; on which account the town has lately increased most towards the north-west, on a second bank, and a considerable number of buildings have lately been erected on the opposite side of the Muskingum, which is some feet higher than the lower bank on the east side. The whole is handsomely laid out, and there is a greater portion of public ground for walks than is to be found about most of the towns in this country.

Marietta, for a number of years, flourished in a very eminent degree, increasing in commerce, wealth, and splendour; and, though nearly 2000 miles from the ocean, ship-yards were erected, and ship-building carried on with spirit. But, of late, its commerce and ship-building has ceased, and it is now a dull place, though inhabited by a gay, lively people, mostly natives of Massachusetts. Its population is 1468. It contains a number of handsome buildings on the Massachusetts plan, which is elegant, light, and comfortable. The principal public building is a very handsome church. A bank was established in 1807, and also a steam-mill. There are several taverns and stores.

ZANESVILLE DISTRICT is bounded on the north by Canton district, on the south by the Ohio company's purchase, on the east by Steubenville and Marietta districts, and on the west by Chillicothe district. Its length, from south to north, is about

72 miles; its breadth is about 50 miles; and its area about 3600 square miles, or 2,304,000 acres.

Upwards of two-thirds of this district is occupied by the army lands, and a small portion is refugee lands. The face of the country is beautifully diversified. To the south, along the Muskingum, the hills are pretty high and rough; to the north the surface is agreeably uneven, with some pretty high hills; to the north-west it is more level. The soil is various, but a great portion of it is good; the bottoms on the rivers are very rich, and the hills are generally covered with a strong mould, which answers well for wheat. The whole is abundantly supplied with freestone, limestone, iron ore, and inexhaustible beds of coal.

The district is remarkably well watered. The Muskingum runs through it from one extremity to the other. The natural timber is very fine, and of great variety. The chief kinds may be noticed: oak, walnut, hickory, cherry, sugar-maple, poplar, elm, ash, sycamore, honey-locust, &c. Fruit-trees of every kind thrive remarkably well: peach trees, raised from the stone, bear fruit in three years. Grain, grass, and vegetables, are raised in abundance. The climate is healthy and agreeable. People from the eastern state say that the summers are not so oppressive as in Vermont and Massachusetts, while the winters are generally so mild, that cattle mostly graze in the fields.

It is little more than twelve years since this district began to settle, and it now contains about 20,000 inhabitants. The people are very mixed. The greater part are from Pennsylvania, and the remainder mostly from Virginia, Maryland, Jersey, and New England.

Zanesville, the chief town, is situated on the Muskingum river, about 64 miles from the Ohio by land, and from 70 to 80 by water. This town was laid out in the year 1804. Five years afterwards it contained 92 houses, and 600 inhabitants: it now contains about 250 houses, and upwards of 1200 inhabitants. The whole township contains 2154. Many of the houses are built of brick, and a few of stone.

STEBENVILLE DISTRICT extends from the Connecticut reservation on the north to the Marietta district on the south, a distance of 72 miles; and its extreme breadth at the north end is 60 miles, at the south end 42. Its area is about 2000 square miles, and embraces nearly four counties, containing about 42,000 inhabitants, all settled here within 20 years. The Ohio river washes the eastern part of the district upwards of 60 miles, and in all this distance, except in the bottoms, the country on the margin of the river is rather rough; but further back there is much good land, and the settlements on it are numerous and very important; it is remarkably well watered, there being upwards of 20 streams that run into the Ohio, besides those that run into the Muskingum and lake Erie; and the head waters of all these being situated in the district, shows that it must be an elevated country. These rivers are mostly fed by springs, and they drive a great quantity of machinery. The timber is oak, hickory, walnut, maple, cherry, locust, &c.

The town of *Stebenville* is situated on an elevated second bank of the river. It was laid out in 1798, and consists now of nearly 200 dwelling-houses, and 880 inhabitants. The buildings are handsome and commodious, a great many of them being of brick. The public buildings are, a court-house, jail, church, a bank, a land-office, post-office, and printing-office. There are seven taverns, and twelve stores; and the town is increasing, but not rapidly.

CANTON DISTRICT was lately purchased from the Indians, and extends from the Tuscarawa river about 68 miles to the westward, and from the Connecticut reservation to the north boundary of Zanesville and Chillicothe districts, its average breadth being 28 miles. Its area is about 1800 square miles, or 1,152,000 acres.

The district is nearly all level, and fit for cultivation, but it is in many parts very muddy, a circumstance common in the districts situated on the head waters of the rivers in this state. On this account it is difficult to make good roads, and it requires a pretty thick population to drain the country, and make it agreeable; but there is a sufficient descent for carry-

ing off the water, and this will be a very desirable country some time hence. It is abundantly supplied with springs, and streams of pure water. There is a great deal of prairie or meadow land interspersed through it. The principal timber is walnut, poplar, ash, elm, oak, sugar maple, and hickory. The soil is well adapted to the culture of grain, grass, tobacco, hemp, &c.

The CONNECTICUT WESTERN RESERVATION is bounded by lake Erie on the north; by Steubenville and Canton districts on the south; by Pennsylvania on the east; and by a line drawn through the middle of Sandusky bay on the west. It is in length about 122 miles, its average breadth about 45; and its area is about 5340 square miles, or 3,423,360 acres.

The face of the country is generally level; in some places nearly flat, and in others swelling out into gentle hills, of which the greatest is the ridge that divides the waters of the lakes from those of the Mississippi. To the south of these is a gentle descent towards the Ohio; and in the tract to the north, which is by far the greatest, there is a similar descent towards lake Erie. The soil is generally loam intermixed with clay, and sometimes with gravel. Very little of it can be called the best, but it is nearly all fit for cultivation, and it answers well for grazing: it also raises grain, vegetables, and fruit, in abundance. There are considerable beds of freestone throughout the district, and coal and iron are also found, but in no great abundance; though several iron-works are in operation, and it is presumed that a plentiful supply of both could be found if properly sought for.

It is most beautifully watered on the north by the lake, and there are a number of very useful rivers. The principal stream that runs to the south is Beaver creek, a very important one, which drives a great quantity of machinery. The whole district is well supplied with springs of good water, and there are several salt springs, sulphur springs, and one of a bituminous substance, that burns like oil.

The principal timber is oak, chesnut, beech, maple, walnut, hickory, sycamore, and in some places pine; but the last is not common here, and is hardly to be found any where else in

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the state. The climate is temperate, and the seasons are nearly assimilated to others already noticed in the state; but there is a circumstance which renders the country here not so healthy as that farther south. The prevailing winds are from the south, particularly in summer and fall, and these, as they blow over the high lands of Tennessee, Kentucky, and Virginia, are clear and elastic in all the southern part of the state, which is hilly and undulating. Towards the head waters of the rivers, however, the country becomes flat and marshy, in some few places, indeed, swampy, and the south winds reach this district loaded with the effluvia arising from these marshes and swamps. The effect produced is greatest about the Cayahoga river, opposite to which the lands at the head waters are most flat; towards the west they get more elevated, and the elevation is greater still to the eastward; and this may in part account for the fever being more common in Portage county and Cayahoga county, than any where else in the district. There are, however, no marshes or swamps but what may and will be drained, when the country is settled up; and the whole will then be a very fine climate, and a most agreeable place of residence.

The claim of Connecticut to this territory was founded upon the charter of the state, granted by king Charles II. of England, in 1662; which defined their boundaries to be the line of Massachusetts on the north, Narraganset bay on the east, and thence 120 miles broad to the South sea. This was interpreted to be the Pacific ocean, and of course included a part of the state of New York, a considerable portion of Pennsylvania, and thence along the state of Ohio and the territories to the westward. The state of New York resisted the claim, and succeeded. In Pennsylvania a number of settlements were made under Connecticut titles, which occasioned a dispute, that was referred to congress, and by them to commissioners, who reported against the Connecticut claim. To the westward Connecticut yielded her claim to the United States, with the exception of the territory in question, which being accepted by congress, the matter was settled. In 1798, the legislature granted 500,000 acres of the western part of it to indemnify the sufferers by fire during the war, and this tract

is called the Fire lands. In 1793, they sold the remainder to Oliver Phelps and others, for 1,200,000 dollars; which is appropriated for the support of schools within the state. The purchasers of the lands made a division of the property, and the settlements commenced a short time after, and have been going on pretty rapidly since the year 1799, by emigration from the New England states, principally from the state of Connecticut. The district is now divided into six counties, and contains 16,046 inhabitants. The people have generally the frugal, industrious habits of the New England states, and are civil in their manners, and moral in their deportment. Education is generally attended to, and they seem also to be religious, although the thin state of society does not admit of many churches or clergy.

There are as yet but few villages in this district. Warren is the chief, and it is but a small place. The houses are mostly of wood, a great part of them indeed being log houses.

Population.—In 1817, the inhabitants of this state amounted to 394,752 persons, which is nearly four persons to a square mile. The population is rapidly increasing, and it is supposed will be nearly doubled in ten years. A considerable part of the state is still inhabited by the Indians; but as daily encroachments are making upon their territory, their numbers must naturally decrease.

Trade and Resources.—This being a new settled country, the manufactures are mostly of the domestic kind. The imports are nearly every description of English goods, and some French and India. They are received by way of New Orleans, Baltimore, or Philadelphia. The exports are flour, beef, pork, and butter.

The value of houses and cleared land in this state, in 1815, was stated at 61,247,215 dollars; and 505 dollars were expended above the sum collected for duties imposed upon merchandise. The vessels belonging to this state are all small, and employed in internal trade.

Government.—The government is legislative and executive, with power to provide for, and regulate the judicial and military authority.

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The legislature consists of two branches ; a senate and house of representatives. The representatives must not exceed 72 members, and are chosen annually by the people, in which every free white male who is a citizen of the United States, and has resided a year in the state, and paid taxes, shall have a vote. The representatives must have the same qualifications, and be 25 years of age.

The senators are chosen biennially by qualified voters for representatives, and one half vacate their seats every year. They shall never be less than one-third nor more than one-half of the representatives. They must, besides the other qualifications of the representatives, have resided two years in the country, and be 30 years of age.

The governor is chosen by the electors for the members of the general assembly for the term of two years, and is not eligible for more than six years in eight. He must be 30 years of age, and have been a citizen of the United States 12 years, and an inhabitant of the state four years.

The judicial power is vested in a supreme court, in courts of common pleas for each county, in justices of the peace, and such other courts as the legislature may appoint. The supreme court consists of three judges, appointed by the assembly, who hold their offices for seven years. The courts of common pleas consist of a president and associate judges, chosen in like manner, and for the like term. A justice court is held in each township, and the justices are elected by the inhabitants of the respective towns, and continue in office three years. The powers and duties of the justices are from time to time regulated and defined by law. This last regulation is a peculiar feature in the local jurisprudence of the state, and goes far to do away all petty litigation.

The justices originally had cognizance of all cases where the sums did not exceed 30 dollars. By an act of the legislature their powers were extended to cases not exceeding 50 dollars, which gave rise to a very singular transaction in the state. The judges of the supreme court refused to put the law in execution, alleging that it was contrary to the constitution of the United States. They were impeached by the house of re-

representatives; but it requires two-thirds of the senate to convict, and they were saved by a very narrow majority. The legislature, to mark their disapprobation of the conduct of the judges, raised the sum from 50 to 70 dollars; and when the seven years for which they were appointed expired, they were not re-elected. The justice courts have now cognizance of all cases where the sums do not exceed 70 dollars.

The legislature of this state, like many other similar ones, are too fond of making laws, and interfering with the private affairs of individuals. Swearing is prohibited by law, at the rate of a dollar for an oath; and the law is strictly put in execution. Illegitimate commerce between the sexes is also prohibited, under pretty heavy penalties; and a law has lately been enacted to enforce the marriage covenant, in cases where people are disposed to plead a disannulment on the score of religion.

INDIANA.

Situation and Extent. INDIANA is situated between north lat. 37 deg. 47 min. and 41 deg. 50 min., and west long. 7 deg. 40 min. and 10 deg. 45 min. Its greatest length is 284 miles, and its breadth 155. Its area is 38,000 square miles, or 24,320,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—The face of the country is hilly, not mountainous; and the scenery is said to be rich and variegated, abounding with plains and large prairies.

The principal river is the Wabash, which is said to be a beautiful stream, 280 yards broad at its outlet, and navigable upwards of 200 miles. It rises near the boundary line between the state of Ohio and Indiana, about 100 miles from lake Erie, where there is a portage of only eight miles between it and the

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Miami of the lakes. Its course is nearly south-west, and the distance it runs, including its windings, is not less than 500 miles. A great many tributary streams flow into it; the chief of which is White river, upwards of 200 miles long. Tippacanoe river, near which are the largest settlements of Indians in the territory, falls into the Wabash; and it is near the outlet of that river where the Prophet is at present collecting his forces.

The soil is said to be generally rich and fertile. The climate is delightful, except in the neighbourhood of marshes, chiefly confined to the lower parts of the territory.

The settlements commenced about 22 or 23 years ago, and have made considerable progress, though they have been retarded by the settlement of the fertile and beautiful state of Ohio, which is situated between this and the old states. The greater part of the territory is yet subject to Indian claims. Where they have been extinguished, and the white settlements have been made, it is divided into four counties, and 22 townships, the greater part of which are on the Ohio; and some few on the Wabash and White-water river. The inhabitants amounted, by the census of 1800, to 5641; they now amount to 86,734, being an increase of 81,093 in 17 years.

The agriculture of the territory is nearly the same as that of the state of Ohio. Every kind of grain, grass, and fruit comes to maturity; and towards the southern part of it considerable crops of cotton are raised, though only for domestic use.

Towns.—The principal town is *Vincennes*, on the Wabash. It is an old settlement, and the inhabitants are mostly of French extraction; they amounted, by last census, to 670.

Trade.—As the inhabitants make nearly all their own clothing, they have little external trade. What little they have is down the river to New Orleans.

Government.—The constitution or government in this new country is similar to that of the other neighbouring states,—excellent in theory, but too often vile and corrupt in practice. It declares, in pompous language, that all men are free; but if their skins be black, they are not included in this declara-

tion, slaves being necessary for the ease and comfort of the freemen of Indiana.

We will now proceed to view the *Southern States* of the UNION, agreeably to the arrangement we have adopted.

MARYLAND.

Situation and Extent. THIS state is situated between 38 and 39 deg. 43 min. north lat., and 8 deg. east and 2 deg. 30 min. west long. Its extreme length from east to west is 212 miles; and its extreme breadth from north to south is 123; but it is very irregular. It is computed to contain about 14,000 square miles, or 8,960,000 acres, of which about one-fourth is water.

Natural Geography.—The face of the country is remarkably variegated. It is bounded on the south-west by the river Patomak to its extremity; and the fine Chesapeake bay, with its numerous waters, passes through the middle of it. On the east side it presents a coast of about 35 miles to the Atlantic ocean: the eastern shore is low, level, and sandy. The country continues to rise by a very gentle ascent, but is generally level to Baltimore; it then swells out into a hilly country, and the western part stretches across the mountains.

The Chesapeake bay has already been noticed; but it merits a more particular description, from its vast importance to this state, and indeed to the United States generally. This bay is formed by the outlet of the Susquehannah river, where it receives French creek, and a number of smaller streams; it is there about seven miles broad, and so continues to near the branch that leads up to Baltimore; from thence it assumes various breadths, from ten to fifteen miles, during a course downwards of about 70 miles, to near the Patomak river:

from thence it stretches out to 25 or 30 miles, during a passage of 90 miles more, and finally passes into the Atlantic ocean by an outlet of 20 miles broad: the whole course, from north to south, is nearly 200 miles, and it receives in its passage the whole waters of this state, nearly the whole of the eastern part of Virginia, a great part of those of Pennsylvania, and some of Delaware; exhibiting, upon the whole, a greater confluence of waters than is to be seen in the United States, or almost in the world. The principal rivers in Maryland that run into this bay, besides the Susquehannah and Patomak, are the Patapsco and Patuxent, on the west side; and on the east side, Elk river, Sassafras, Chester, Choptank, Nanticoke, and Pocomoke, the last of which issues out of Cyprus swamp. There are numerous islands in the bay, and the waters abound with various kinds of fish. The state is generally well watered, and abounds with mill-seats.

The soil is very various, and a great portion of it is but poor: towards the eastern shore it is low and sandy, abounding with swamps: in the interior there are many fertile spots; but the greater part of the land is poor until you pass the first ridge of mountains, where there is a fertile valley of twelve or fourteen miles broad: from thence the soil is pretty much assimilated to the mountainous district of Pennsylvania.

The climate is as various as the soil: the eastern part is pretty similar to Delaware, indicated by a pale, sickly colour in the inhabitants. It improves as the land gets hilly, and among the mountains is delightful, the summers being cooled by fine breezes, while the winters are tempered by a southern latitude, which renders them much more mild than to the northward.

Maryland is well supplied with iron ore, and some coal has been found, but not in sufficient quantity to make it an object of importance.

This is the first state in which there is a material difference of agriculture from the northern states: still, however, the staple crop is wheat; but they raise a considerable quantity of tobacco, and some cotton, though none of the latter for exportation. All the other grains, grasses, and roots, that grow

in the northern state, flourish here; and the sweet potatoe, a root belonging to a warm climate, comes to considerable maturity.

Population.—According to the returns made in 1817, the population of this state amounted to 502,710, which, when the proportion of water is subtracted, will be about 45 persons to a square mile.

Manners, &c.—The inhabitants of this state are distinguished for that gaiety, extravagance, and hospitality, which is usually exhibited by slave masters; but this character is only applicable to the inhabitants of the most populous districts. Those who reside in the more remote parts of the state 'live (says an American writer) very retired and unsocial lives. The effects of this comparative solitude are visible in the countenances, as well as in the manners and dress, of the country people. You observe very little of that cheerful sprightliness of look and action which is the invariable and genuine offspring of social intercourse. Nor do you find that attention paid to dress, which is common, and which decency and propriety have rendered necessary, among people who are liable to receive company almost every day. Unaccustomed, in a great measure, to these frequent and friendly visits, they often suffer a negligence in their dress which borders on slovenliness. There is apparently a disconsolate wildness in their countenances, and an indolence and inactivity in their whole behaviour, which are evidently the effects of solitude and slavery. As the negroes perform all the manual labour, their masters are left to saunter away life in sloth, and too often in ignorance. These observations, however, must in justice be limited to the people in the country, and to those particularly whose poverty or parsimony prevents their spending a part of their time in populous towns, or otherwise mingling with the world.'

The Baltimorians lay claim to a superior reputation for enterprise and bravery; and, it must be confessed, they appear entitled to it, judging from their shipping, much of which is engaged in hazardous pursuits, together with the speculative improvements of their town, and their having, by superior ac-

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tivity, supplanted Philadelphia in part of the western country trade; yet the merchants of this city are said to be deficient in capital. Of their bravery, history will speak when recording their gallant and successful defence of their city, though attacked by the combined naval and military forces of England.

Chief Towns.—*Baltimore* stands on the north side of the river Patapsco, which may rather be regarded as a creek of the great bay of Chesapeake, and has rapidly risen to its present consequence. The situation is rather low, but it has been rendered by art tolerably salubrious. A creek divides it into two parts, Baltimore town and Fell's point, to the latter of which vessels of 600 tons can sail; but only small vessels can come up to the town. The bason, as it is called, is very capacious, and capable of holding 2000 sail.

At the commencement of the American war, Baltimore was but an inconsiderable village; but such has been the rapidity of its growth, that it is now the fourth commercial city in the United States. The houses are mostly built of brick, and many of them are elegant: the principal public buildings are, thirteen places of public worship, a court-house, a jail, three market-houses, a poor-house, the exchange, theatre, observatory, assembly-rooms, and library. The manufactures of Baltimore are considerable, and consist chiefly of ships, cordage, iron utensils, paper, saddlery, boots and shoes, hats, wool and cotton cards, &c. In the adjoining country there are numerous mills, furnaces, and forges, which contribute much to the trade of the city.

There are several religious sects, the most numerous of which are Roman catholics. Episcopalians, baptists, presbyterians, methodists, and quakers, have each a respectable number of partisans; and an unitarian church is now building. The architecture of several of the churches displays first-rate talent; and it seems not a little surprising, that such ability should have been overlooked by the conductors of the national buildings at Washington.

Although this city 70 years ago consisted of only ten houses, it now contains 60,000 inhabitants; and as it is the emporium of the state, it must necessarily increase in wealth and import-

ance. A great portion of the export trade is flour, much of which is received from the state of Pennsylvania, through the medium of the Susquehannah river; and the citizens have a brisk trade in importing and reshipping foreign articles, particularly West Indian produce—rum, sugar, and coffee. A great portion of the imports are manufactured goods from Britain, and, having the supply of an immense back country, this is an increasing trade. Many of the people in the western states give Baltimore the preference to Philadelphia; it is 50 miles nearer to Pittsburg than the latter city, which has a natural tendency to secure a preference; and the inhabitants of Maryland, who seem to appreciate the importance of this trade, have acted with a laudable zeal in making good roads. The trade of Baltimore is facilitated by three banks, having all ample capitals. One is a branch of the bank of the United States.

The affairs of the city are under the management of a city council, consisting of two branches, and a mayor. The police seems to be under good regulations, and the streets are kept very clean, which secures good health to the citizens. Education is pretty well attended to; and the citizens are said to be hospitable and industrious. The men rank as correct men of business.

North and east of the town the land rises, and affords a fine prospect of the town and bay. Belvidera exhibits one of the finest landscapes in nature. The town, the point, the shipping both in the bason and at Fell's point, the bay as far as the eye can reach, rising ground on the right and left of the harbour, a grove of trees on the declivity at the right, a stream of water breaking over the rocks at the foot of the hill on the left, all conspire to complete the beauty and grandeur of the prospect.

Annapolis is the capital of Maryland, and the wealthiest town of its size in America. It is situated just at the mouth of Severn river, 30 miles south of Baltimore. It is a place of little note in the commercial world. The houses, about 300 in number, are generally large and elegant, indicative of great wealth. The design of those who planned the city, was to have the whole in the form of a circle, with the streets, like

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radii, beginning at the centre where the stadt-house stands, and thence diverging in every direction. The principal part of the buildings are arranged agreeably to this awkward plan. The stadt-house is the noblest building of the kind in America. There is a college, a theatre, and two places of public worship in the city. It has a harbour, though no great commerce; but, being a pleasant place, it is the residence of a great many wealthy people.

Fredericktown is a large inland town, containing a court-house, jail, academy, market-house, and seven places of public worship. The inhabitants are about 6000; and the town has considerable manufactures and inland trade. *Hagerstown*, situated beyond the mountains, contains 2100 inhabitants. Besides these, there are a greater number of smaller towns and villages, containing from 100 to 1000 inhabitants. A great number of the farm-houses are built of wood, and they are not so substantial, nor so elegant, in general, as those in Pennsylvania.

Trade, &c.—The value of houses, lands, and slaves, in this state, in 1815, was estimated at 122,577,573 dollars; the land being valued at 20 dollars per acre.

The trade and manufactures of this state have been noticed in the account of Baltimore. The duty on merchandise in 1815 produced 4,202,463 dollars. The tonnage employed in foreign trade amounted to 88,161, and in the coasting trade to 8529.

Education.—There are considerable funds appropriated to the support of education. There are five colleges, and a number of very respectable academies in the state, and common schools in every county.

Religion.—The Roman catholics, who were the first settlers in Maryland, are the most numerous religious sect. Besides these, there are protestants, episcopalians, English, Scotch, and Irish presbyterians, German Calvinists, German Lutherans, friends, baptists, methodists, Mennonists, Nicolites, or new quakers.

Government.—The state is divided into 19 counties. The civil government is vested in a governor, senate, and house of

delegates, all chosen annually. The qualification to vote for delegates is a freehold of 50 acres of land, or property to the value of 30*l.* currency. The principles of government are similar to those of Pennsylvania.

History.—Maryland was granted by Charles I. to Cecilius Calvert, baron of Baltimore, in Ireland, June 20, 1632. The government of the province was, by charter, vested in the proprietary; but it appears that he either never exercised these powers alone, or but for a short time. The hon. Leonard Calvert, esq., lord Baltimore's brother, was the first governor, or lieutenant-general. His lordship evinced his wisdom, and the liberality of his religious opinions, by providing for the free exercise of all other religious opinions in the colony. In 1642, one Ingle excited a rebellion, and three years passed before order was restored. Under the government of Cromwell, the exercise of the Roman catholic religion was restrained; which must have been felt extremely oppressive, as the first and principal inhabitants were Catholics. In 1692, the protestant religion was established by law. At the commencement of the revolutionary war, the state was declared to belong to the citizens, who delegated five of their number to the first congress. The state constitution was framed in 1776, which, with a few trifling amendments, still continues. When the independence of the United States was acknowledged by England, Henry Harford, esq., the natural son and heir of lord Baltimore, petitioned the legislature of Maryland for his estate; but his petition was not granted. Mr. Harford estimated his loss of quit-rents, valued at twenty years purchase, and including arrears, at 259,488*l.* 5*s.*, dollars at 7*s.* 6*d.*; and the value of his manors and reserved lands at 327,441*l.* of the same money.

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VIRGINIA.

Situation and Extent. VIRGINIA* is situated between 36 deg. 30 min. and 39 deg. 48 min. north lat., and 1 deg. east and 6 deg. 25 min. west long. The extreme length of the state from east to west is 442 miles, and the extreme breadth from the North Carolina line to the Pennsylvania line is 235; but it may be observed that there is a small part of the state that stretches along the banks of the Ohio, to the west of Pennsylvania, about 60 miles long, and on an average 10 broad; and there is another small part, about 55 miles long and 12 broad, to the east of the Chesapeake. The area is computed at 75,000 square miles, being nearly as large as the whole island of Britain, computed at 77,243. The number of acres in Virginia is 48,000,000.

Natural Geography.—The face of the country is somewhat assimilated to Pennsylvania, including Jersey, Delaware, and Maryland. The eastern part extends along the sea coast about 115 miles, of which the outlet of the Chesapeake, already noticed, occupies 20; and this elegant confluence of waters, so often referred to, forms a great variety in this part of the state. From the sea coast to the head of the tide waters, about 100 miles, the country is mostly level, and abounds with swamps. From thence to the mountains it is agreeably uneven, and affords delightful prospects. The mountainous district is about 100 miles in breadth, and the ridges continue, as in Pennsylvania, to range from north-east to south-west. Beyond the mountains the country is much variegated, here swelling out into considerable hills, there subsiding into agree-

* The geography of this important state has been ably illustrated in Mr. Jefferson's Notes, written in 1781. Though many alterations have been made in the circumstances of the state since that time, still this work contains much valuable and interesting information.

able vallies; and so continues to the Ohio, about 60 miles. The Alleghany chain is the ridge which divides the waters of the Atlantic from the Mississippi, and its summit is more elevated above the ocean than that of the others: but its relative height, compared with the base on which it stands, is not so great, because the country rises behind the successive ridges like steps of stairs.

The whole of the Atlantic rivers have been already noticed; the others are but few. The state is watered to the westward by the Ohio upwards of 240 miles, and the Great Sandy river forms the boundary, for upwards of 100 miles, between it and Kentucky. The most important river to the westward is the Great Kanhaway, 'a river of considerable note for the fertility of its lands, and still more, as leading towards the head waters of James river. Nevertheless, it is doubtful whether its great and numerous falls will admit a navigation but at an expence to which it will require ages to render its inhabitants equal. The great obstacles begin at what are called the great falls, 90 miles above its mouth, below which are only five or six rapids, and these passable, with some difficulty, even at low water. From the falls to the mouth of Greenbriar is 100 miles, and thence to the lead mines 120. It is 280 yards wide at its mouth.'

The little Kanhaway is 150 yards wide at the mouth, and is navigable for 10 miles only.

The Shenandoah river rises in the interior of the country, and running a north-east course, of about 250 miles, through the great Limestone valley, parallel to the mountains, falls into the Patomak just above the Blue ridge. The junction of the rivers, and the passage through the Blue ridge, is said to be one of the finest scenes in nature, and has been described in our general view of the United States.

There are a great variety of minerals and mineral springs in the state. Iron is very plentiful, and several mines of lead have been opened. Some copper, black-lead, and precious stones have been found, and in one instance gold was discovered. Limestone is plentiful, and coal is abundant at Richmond, in some places among the mountains, and in the western

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country. Of the mineral springs, the warm and hot springs and the sweet spring, are the most remarkable. They are situated near the sources of James river, at the foot of the Alleghany mountains, about 42 miles apart. They are now well known, and much resorted to. There are sulphur springs in several places; and on the Kanhaway river, 67 miles from its outlet, there is a very remarkable air spring.

The soil in the low part of the state is sandy, except on the banks of the rivers, where it is very rich. Between the head of the tide-waters and the mountains, it exhibits a great variety, and a considerable portion is good. Among the mountains there is a great deal of poor land, but it is interspersed with rich vallies. Beyond the mountains the soil is generally rich and fertile.

The climate of Virginia is very various, and is subject to great and sudden changes. In the greater part of the country below the head of the tide-waters, the summers are hot and sultry, and the winters mild. From thence to the foot of the mountains the air is pure and elastic, and both summers and winters are several degrees of temperature below the low country. Among the mountains, the summers are delightful, though sometimes the heat is very great. To the westward the climate is temperate, the summers being cooler and the winters warmer than on the sea coast. Except in the neighbourhood of stagnant waters in the low country, Virginia has, upon the whole, a healthy climate.

The state has of late been considerably improved by roads, but in that branch much remains to be done. The canal contemplated by Mr. Jefferson between the waters of the Chesapeake and Albemarle sound has been cut. It is 16 miles in length, and answers a most valuable purpose. Considerable improvements have been made upon the navigation of the Shenandoah river; and there are several very important roads and canals projected.

The principal branches of agriculture for exportation are wheat and tobacco; and the farms produce in plenty, Indian corn, rye, barley, buck-wheat, &c. Hemp and flax are abundant, and considerable quantities of cotton are raised in the

southern part of the state. Indigo is cultivated with success, and the silk-worm is a native of the country, though not much attended to. The fields likewise produce potatoes, both sweet and common, turnips, parsnips, carrots, pumpkins, and ground nuts; and of grasses, there are clovers, red, white, and yellow, timothy, ray, greensward, blue grass, and crab-grass. The orchards abound in fruit; apples, pears, peaches, quinces, cherries, nectarines, apricots, almonds, and plums. The domestic animals thrive well, horses, cows, sheep, hogs, poultry; and there is a great variety of wild game.

Population.—The population of this state in 1817 amounted to 1,347,496, which is 18 persons to a square mile.

Manners, &c.—The character of the Virginians has been often described; but all writers agree in ascribing most of their errors and crimes to the system of slavery established amongst them. An English writer says, that 'the climate and external appearance of the country conspire to make them indolent, easy, and good-natured; extremely fond of society, and much given to convivial pleasures. In consequence of this, they seldom show any spirit of enterprise, or expose themselves willingly to fatigue. Their authority over their slaves renders them vain and imperious, and entire strangers to that elegance of sentiment which is so peculiarly characteristic of refined and polished nations. Their ignorance of mankind and of learning exposes them to many errors and prejudices, especially in regard to Indians and negroes, whom they scarcely consider as of the human species; so that it is almost impossible, in cases of violence, or even murder, committed upon those unhappy people by any of the planters, to have the delinquents brought to justice; for either the grand jury refuse to find the bill, or the petit jury bring in their verdict, not guilty.

'The display of a character thus constituted will naturally be in acts of extravagance, ostentation, and a disregard of economy: it is not extraordinary, therefore, that the Virginians outrun their incomes; and that having involved themselves in difficulties, they are frequently tempted to raise money by bills of exchange, which they know will be returned protested, with

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10 per cent. interest. The public or political character of the Virginians corresponds with their private one: they are haughty and jealous of their liberties, impatient of restraint, and can scarcely bear the thought of being controlled by any superior power.

'The women are, upon the whole, rather handsome, though not to be compared with our fair countrywomen in England. They have but few advantages, and consequently are seldom accomplished; this makes them reserved, and unequal to any interesting or refined conversation. They are immoderately fond of dancing, and indeed it is almost the only amusement they partake of: but even in this they discover great want of taste and elegance, and seldom appear with that gracefulness and ease which these movements are so calculated to display. Towards the close of an evening, when the company are pretty well tired of country dances, it is usual to dance jigs; a practice originally borrowed, I am informed, from the negroes. These dances are without any method or regularity. A gentleman and lady stand up, and dance about the room, one of them retiring, the other pursuing, then perhaps meeting, in an irregular fantastical manner. After some time, another lady gets up; and then the first lady must sit down, she being, as they term it, cut out. The second lady acts the same part which the first did, till somebody cuts her out. The gentlemen perform in the same manner. The Virginian ladies, excepting their amusements, and now and then a party of pleasure into the woods to partake of a barbacue, chiefly spend their time in sewing and taking care of their families. They seldom read, or endeavour to improve their minds. However, they are in general good housewives; and though they have not, I think, quite so much tenderness and sensibility as the English ladies, yet they make as good wives, and as good mothers, as any in the world.' This character was drawn from personal observation, and, in general, appears to be just.

'The young men,' another traveller observes, 'generally speaking, are gamblers, cock-fighters, and horse-jockies. To hear them converse, you would imagine that the grand point of all science was properly to fix a gaff, and touch, with dexte-

rity, the tail of a cock while in combat. He who won the last match, the last game, or the last horse-race, assumes the airs of a hero or German potentate. The ingenuity of a Locke, or the discoveries of a Newton, are considered as infinitely inferior to the accomplishments of him who knows when to shoulder a blind cock, or start a fleet horse.' A spirit for literary enquiries, if not altogether confined to a few, is, among the body of the people, evidently subordinate to a spirit of gaming and barbarous sports. At almost every tavern or ordinary on the public road there is a billiard table, a backgammon table, cards, and other implements for various games. To these public houses the gambling gentry in the neighbourhood resort, to *kill time*, which hangs heavily upon them; and at this business they are extremely expert, having been accustomed to it from their earliest youth. The passion for cock-fighting, a diversion not only inhumanly barbarous, but infinitely beneath the dignity of a man of sense, is so predominant, that they even advertise their matches in the public newspapers. This dissipation of manners is the fruit of indolence and luxury, which arise from the system of African slavery.

Chief Towns.—*Richmond* is handsomely situated on James river, immediately below the falls. It is a large elegant city, consisting of more than 1200 houses, and contains about 10,000 inhabitants. The state-house stands on an eminence, and is considered the handsomest building in the state, having spacious apartments for the meetings of the legislature, and commodious rooms for the transaction of the public business of the state. The other public buildings are, the court-house, jail, and theatre, two places for public worship, a free mason's hall, and three tobacco warehouses. Richmond is situated in a fertile healthy country, and is well supplied with provisions; and it is flourishing in manufactures and commerce. There is an armoury in the neighbourhood, said to be the best in the United States. The city is remarkably well situated for mills; some of the finest flour-mills in the state have lately been erected, and the quantity of flour manufactured annually is immense. There are also rolling and slitting mills, oil-mills,

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and several others; and several extensive distilleries and breweries. Richmond carries on a considerable trade, principally in tobacco and flour, with many places of the United States, particularly New York, which in return supplies it with dry goods and groceries. The inhabitants here, like those in the sea-ports, are mostly dressed in British manufactures, and are very gay. Gambling is the favourite diversion of the people, and is constantly practised without the smallest degree of secrecy. 'On alighting at a tavern,' says Mr. Weld, 'the landlord immediately asked what game was most congenial to my inclination, as he could conduct me, according to my wish, either to a faro, hazard, or billiard table. These apartments are always crowded with gamblers, and the doors are only shut to exclude the lowest order of the people, who, however, contrive to find a similar amusement at some petty house of accommodation. The taverns being thus infested is a disagreeable circumstance to a traveller who is blest with a different bent of inclination, as every room is considered common, and the place where a stranger wishes to seclude himself from the eye of public observation, is always the most frequented.'

Norfolk is a large town, containing nearly the same number of inhabitants as Richmond. It is a place of very extended commerce, principally in flour and tobacco, and its commerce and population will probably continue to increase for a long period. Mr. Jefferson remarks, in his Notes, 'that it will probably be the emporium for all the trade of the Chesapeake bay and its waters, and a canal of eight or ten miles will bring to it all that of the Albemarle sound and its waters.' But it is to be observed, that the Chesapeake bay and its waters are navigable a long way into the interior of the country, in consequence of which, probably no single town or city will be the emporium for all the trade; it will be divided among many. We accordingly find numerous towns upon these waters, of which the following may be noticed.

On Rappahannoc, *Urbanna*, *Port Royal*, *Falmouth*. *Fredericksburg* is situated on the south-west side of this river. It is regularly laid out, the streets crossing one another at right angles, and consists of about 800 houses, containing about

1600 inhabitants. The principal public buildings are an episcopal church, an academy, court-house, and jail. It carries on a considerable trade, principally in flour and tobacco.

On Patomak and its waters, *Dumfries, Colchester, Winchester, Staunton.*

On York river and its waters, *York, Newcastle, Hanover.*

On James river and its waters, *Portsmouth, Hampton, Suffolk, Smithfield, Williamsburg, Manchester, Charlottesville.* *Petersburg* is situated on this river, immediately below the falls, and is a place of considerable wealth and importance, carrying on a great trade in tobacco and flour, a considerable portion of which is with New York. The population, in 1800, was 2034 free people and 1481 slaves. The population is said to be composed principally of Irish people, and they are distinguished for frank liberal manners, and high-spirited patriotism. The principal public buildings are, two places for public worship, a court-house, jail, and free mason's hall. The market is well supplied with provisions; and there are numerous mills in and about the town.

There is no very important town in the western part of the state. *Wheeling*, on the Ohio, will probably increase more than any other.

Trade and Resources.—The interior trade of this state was never of much importance. The manufactures are mostly of the domestic kind; and such is the attachment of the Virginians to agriculture, that there is no doubt they will continue for a considerable time to exchange the raw material for the manufacture of foreign nations.

The value of houses, lands, and slaves, in this state in 1815, by the assessors' return, was 263,737,699 dollars; the average value of land being estimated at 4 dollars 15 cents per acre. The gross revenue arising from duties on merchandise was 1,254,144 dollars. The shipping employed in foreign trade amounted to 31,152 tons, and in the coasting trade to 6549 tons.

Education.—There are two colleges in the state; one of them the college of William and Mary, very liberally endowed. There are several academies and schools in each county; and

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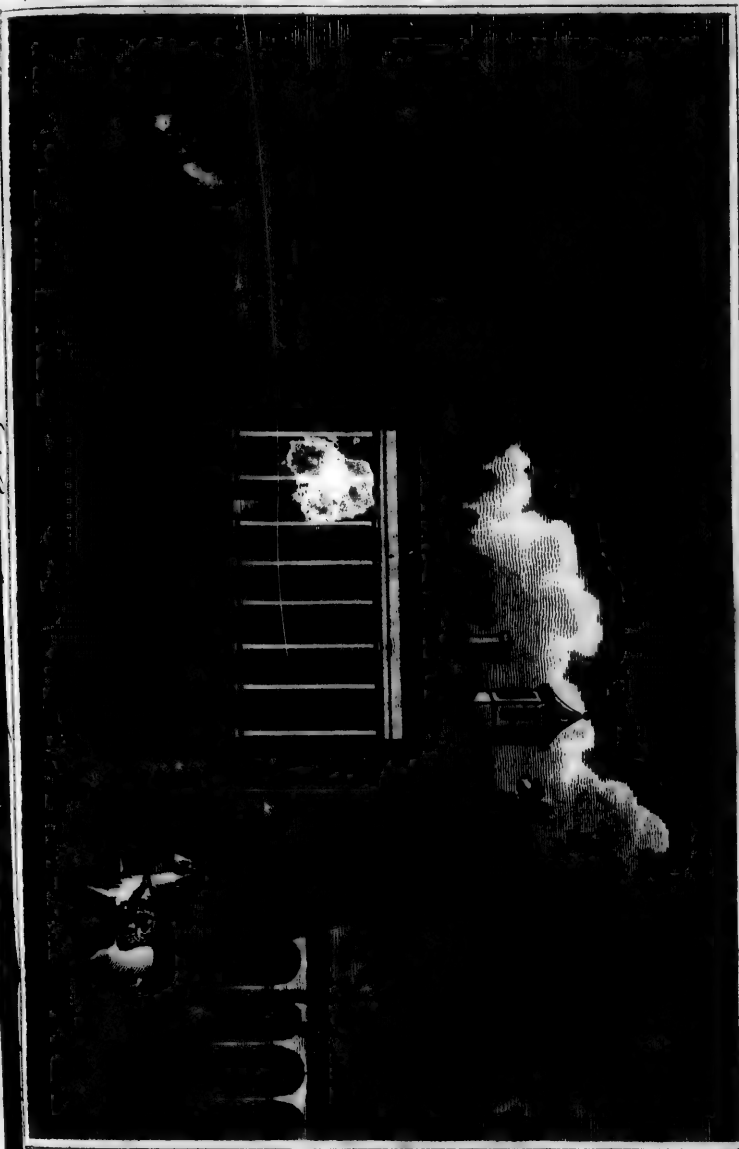
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there are numerous teachers in private families, as tutors. The means, in short, for educating the wealthy are ample, and extensively applied; but the system seems to be defective, so far as *the mass of the people* are concerned, and that important branch deserves the early attention of an enlightened legislature; as the pride, the independence, and the indolence of one class, and the thoughtlessness and poverty of the other, present formidable obstacles to the progress of knowledge.

Religion.—The first settlers in this state were English episcopalians, and they seemed to emulate the bigotry and intolerance of their presbyterian brethren in New England. But the vigilance and activity of the government in supporting the established church begot security and indolence in the clergy; people of various religious opinions began to creep into the state; and, within a century, the episcopalians found themselves subdued by superior spirit and determination.

An act passed the Virginia assembly, in the beginning of 1786, in which it is declared, that, being 'well aware that Almighty God hath created the mind free; that all attempts to influence it by temporal punishments or burthens, or by civil incapacitations, tend only to beget habits of hypocrisy and meanness, and are a departure from the plan of the holy Author of our religion, who being Lord over both body and mind, yet chose not to propagate it by coercions in either, &c.' It was therefore enacted by the general assembly, That no man shall be compelled to frequent or support any religious worship, place, or ministry whatsoever, nor shall be enforced, restrained, molested, or burthened in his body or goods, nor shall otherwise suffer on account of his religious opinions or belief; but that all men shall be free to profess, and by arguments to maintain their opinions in matters of religion; and that the same shall in no wise diminish, enlarge, or affect their civil capacities.

The episcopalians, or, as Mr. Jefferson calls them, the 'Anglicans,' have, comparatively, but few ministers among them; and these few, when they preach, which is seldom more than once a week, preach to very thin congregations. The

presbyterians, in proportion to their numbers, have more ministers, who officiate oftener, and to larger audiences. The baptists and methodists are generally supplied by itinerant preachers, who have large and promiscuous audiences, and preach almost every day, and often several times in a day. The bulk of these religious sects are of the poorer sort of people, and many of them are very ignorant, (as is indeed the case with the other denominations,) but they are generally a moral, well-meaning set of people. They exhibit much zeal in their worship, which appears to be composed of the mingled effusions of piety, enthusiasm, and superstition.

Government.—The following are the outlines of the form of state government:

‘The executive powers are lodged in the hands of a governor, chosen annually, and incapable of acting any more than three years in seven. He is assisted by a council of eight members. The judiciary powers are divided among several courts. Legislation is exercised by two houses of assembly; the one called the House of Delegates, composed of two members from each county, chosen annually by the citizens possessing an estate for life in 100 acres of uninhabited land, or 25 acres with a house and lot on it, or a house or lot in some town. The other, called the Senate, consisting of 24 members, chosen quadrennially by the same electors, who, for this purpose, are distributed into 24 districts. The concurrence of both houses is necessary to the passing of a law: they have the appointment of the governor and council, the judges of the superior courts, auditors, attorney-general, treasurer, register of the land-office, and delegates to congress.’

The state is divided into an eastern and western district, and 90 counties.

History.—We have already noticed the first settlement of Virginia. On the arrival of lord Delaware in 1610, the colony acquired permanency and respectability, which was further increased by a young gentleman named Rolf, who married the daughter of an Indian chief. In 1621, the company of proprietors obtained a charter for settling the government of the state; but shortly after, the king and company quarrelled,

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and, by a mixture of law and force, the latter were ousted of all their rights, without retribution, after having expended 100,000*l.* in establishing the colony, without the smallest aid from government. King James I. took the government into his own hands. Both sides had their partisans in the colony: but the people of the colony in general thought themselves little concerned in the dispute. But they did not remain so long. The northern parts of their country were granted away to the lords Baltimore and Fairfax, the first of these obtaining also the rights of separate jurisdiction and government. And in 1650, the parliament, considering itself as standing in the place of their deposed king, and as having succeeded to all his powers, without as well as within the realm, began to assume a right over the colonies, passing an act for inhibiting their trade with foreign nations. This succession to the exercise of the kingly authority gave the first colour for parliamentary interference with the colonies, and produced that fatal precedent which they continued to follow after they had retired, in other respects, within their proper functions. When this colony, therefore, which still maintained its opposition to Cromwell and the parliament, was induced, in 1651, to lay down their arms, they previously secured their most important rights, by a solemn convention.

This convention was, however, infringed by subsequent kings and parliaments, until the revolution, which the Virginians supported with great energy and success. They still maintain great influence in the public councils, and have thereby incurred the jealousy of their neighbours.

KENTUCKY.

Situation and Extent. **KENTUCKY** is situated between 36 deg. 30 min. and 39 deg. north lat., and 5 and 12 deg. west long. Its greatest length is 328 miles, and its greatest breadth 183. Its area is 52,000 square miles, or 33,280,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—The face of the country is generally uneven, some of it rough and hilly; and towards the east there are considerable spurs of the Alleghany mountains, which divide the state from Virginia. The Ohio river washes the state to the north and north-west, 874 miles; and the Mississippi on the west, 57; the Cumberland and Tennessee rivers pass partly through it. Big Sandy river forms the boundary line a considerable way on the east; and Licking river, Kentucky river, Rolling river, and Green river, are all very considerable streams. There is a vast variety of small streams, and the state has the appearance of being well watered; but in some places it is not. The stratum under the soil is limestone, throughout the whole state: it has a great depth, and seems to be chequered with innumerable fissures, which let the water pass. On this account, there are some places where water is not to be found in summer, and the greater part of the rivers have worn down their beds from 100 to 300 feet below the surface of the earth. From the circumstance of the rivers being so confined between high banks, they roll down their waters to a great depth in freshets: it is no uncommon thing for the Kentucky river to rise from 40 to 50 feet.

The state is said to be rather defective in iron, the most useful of all the metals: but there are, notwithstanding, numerous iron forges. Marble is found in the state, but is not plentiful: coal is found in some places; and a few specimens of lead, copperas, and alum have been found: limestone is a

most plentiful commodity. There are various mineral springs; but the most useful are the salt springs; though they are now of less importance, since the discovery of the valuable salt springs upon the Kanhaway.

The soil in this state has all the gradations from the very best to the very worst; but there is, upon the whole, a great body of good soil in the state. The general character is chalk, covered with a stratum of vegetable earth from eight to twelve feet in depth. A want of water in the summer season is much felt, except in the vicinity of great rivers and their principal dependent streams.

Indian corn is raised here in vast abundance, and almost without labour. Stock of various kinds is raised for the New Orleans, southern, and Atlantic markets. Pork is well fed, and of excellent quality. Beef is also of good quality, and the stock has received considerable attention by the mixture of English breeds.

The climate is more steady than in the eastern states, and is upon the whole favourable. Heat and cold do not go to extremes; the thermometer in summer being seldom above 80 degrees, or in winter below 25. The climate is said to agree well with English constitutions.

Population.—The population of this state in 1817 amounted to 683,753, which is rather more than 13 persons to a square mile. In 1790, the population was estimated at 73,677. As the emigrations are still going on, and likely to continue, particularly from the southern states, the inhabitants will yet greatly increase, though probably not so rapidly as heretofore. The insecurity of the land-titles, and the slave trade, are so many barriers in the way with the people from the northern states, from whence there is the greatest degree of emigration; and there being so much fine land to the westward, a number of the poorer people will go there, where they can get land cheap. However, it is to be presumed that this latter circumstance will have a tendency to improve the morals of the state, as it will purge it of many of the *pioneers*.

Manners, &c.—The character of the inhabitants of this state is always represented in a most unfavourable light. A late

traveller, who viewed the United States as the garden of Eden, and the people as the elect of the earth, confesses that the vices of gaming and swearing are carried to a most inconceivable height. 'At Frankfort,' says he, 'I saw a vagabond in the penitentiary, who had picked out his neighbour's eyes; and a man who sailed down the river with us told me he saw a fight, in which the combatants grappled one another with their teeth: one lost his lip, and the other his nose. In Kentucky, and indeed in the western country generally, there is a vast majority of civil, discreet, well-disposed people, who will hold the lawless and disobedient in check, and in time correct the morals of the whole. Slavery is no doubt hurtful to society, but it is probably more ameliorated in this state than in any other part of the world. Indeed, so much is this the case, that the blacks are generally as well fed, and nearly as well clothed, as the white people; and it is questionable whether they work so hard. A gentleman of very excellent information told me that he did not think the produce of their labour was equal to their maintenance. To me it appeared that they were better fed, better lodged, and better clothed, than many of the peasantry in Britain. Still, however, slavery, under any amelioration, is a bitter draught; and though thousands in all ages have been made to drink of it, it is no less bitter on that account. The insecurity of land titles has also been much against the state, not only by preventing emigrants of property from going to it, but also by encouraging litigation, a most baneful circumstance in any country; but it is to be remarked that the legislature have lately taken measures to place this business on a solid and respectable form.

'Being sprung from the state of Virginia, the manners of that people have given the tone to those of this state, which appears in a spirit of high independence, quick temper, and frank generosity. The only serious evil that I had to complain of in my journey through the country arose from the proneness of many of the natives to swearing. This vice is too common; and though 'tis true that "it will neither break a man's leg, nor pick his pocket," yet it may stun his ears most unmercifully. This was literally the case with me: I

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found the country as bad, in that respect, as Ireland itself. Indeed, it appears to me that there is a considerable similitude between the Irish people and the Virginians, in more respects than this: frank, affable, polite, and hospitable in a high degree, they are quick in their temper, sudden in their resentment, and warm in all their affections.'

Another English traveller says, 'I do not feel myself competent to confirm or deny the general claim of the Kentuckians to generosity and warmth of character; of their habits I would wish to speak with diffidence; that they drink a great deal, swear a great deal, and gamble a great deal, will be apparent to a very brief resident. The barbarous practice of *gouging*, with which they are charged, I have not seen occur, though I have good reason to believe in its existence. They have also another practice, nearly akin to this, called "*gander-pulling*." This *diversion* consists in tying a live gander to a tree or pole, greasing its neck, riding past it at full gallop, and he who succeeds in pulling off the head of the victim, receives the laurel crown. I think I have heard of a similar *pastime* as practised in Holland; but these are not to be taken as *unmixed* characteristics.

'On leaving Kentucky, I have to regret that so much remains to be done for the habits of the people, and to feel from my soul the most sincere sorrow, that men who can form a theoretic constitution, in which it is declared, that "men when they form a social compact are equal; that no man or set of men are entitled to exclusive, separate public emoluments or privileges from the community, but in consideration of public services; that all men have a natural and indefeasible right to worship God according to the dictates of their consciences;" I cannot, I say, but feel sorrow that men who can in theory lay down such principles, can in their practice continue, and even boast of the most demoralizing habits, treat their fellow creatures like brute beasts, and buy and sell human beings like cattle at a fair.'

Chief Towns.—*Lexington* is the seat of justice of Fayette county, and is situated in the heart of a most beautiful country, on a branch of Elkhorn river. It is one of the earliest settle-

ments in the western country, and is coeval with the battle of Lexington, the news of which having reached the early settlers, they conferred on it the present name. It has since flourished in a wonderful degree, and now contains 4327 inhabitants. By the census of 1800, it contained 2400; so that it has nearly doubled its population in 10 years; and as it is increasing in manufactures and wealth, and the adjoining country rapidly settling up, there is every probability that it will increase in the same ratio for a considerable time to come. Lexington has a very neat court-house, market-house, jail, four churches, and a bank. There is a very excellent seminary of learning, under the management of special trustees, which is supported by about 70,000 acres of land; and there is a public library, a valuable establishment, with a youth's library attached to it. Three newspapers are published in the town, and papers are received by mail from all quarters of the union. There are a number of valuable manufactories; and a steam-mill was recently put in motion, which is of great advantage to the town and neighbourhood. There are four principal taverns, all under good management, and there are about 30 retail stores, and two book-stores.

The principal manufactures of Lexington are of hemp, to which the labour of the black people is well adapted, and of which the country yields amazing crops, at the low price of four dollars per cwt.; being at the rate of 18 $\frac{1}{2}$ sterling per ton. There are thirteen extensive rope-walks, five bagging manufactories, and one of duck. The manufactures of hemp alone are estimated at 500,000 dollars. The other principal manufactories are, eight cotton factories, three woollen manufactories, and an oil-cloth factory. The other professions are, masons and stone-cutters, brick-makers, carpenters, cabinet-makers, coopers, turners, machine-makers, smiths, nailors, copper and tin-smiths, brass-founders, gun-smiths, silver-smiths, watch-makers, tanners, curriers, saddlers, boot and shoe-makers, butchers, bakers, brewers, distillers, stocking-makers, dyers, tailors, tobacconists, soap-boilers, candle-makers, brush-makers, potters, painters, confectioners, gloves and breeches-makers, straw-bonnet-makers, and hatters. As this

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place is rapidly increasing, manufactures are so of course; workmen are mostly always in demand, the more so as industrious journeymen very soon become masters.

'The woollen manufactory,' says a recent traveller, 'the steam grist-mill, and a glass-house, are on a tolerably large scale: the two former are said not to pay the proprietors. In the main street, *English goods abound in as great profusion as in Cheapside*. A first-rate shop sells every thing; keeps a stock of from 20 to 30,000 dollars; annual returns may be 50,000 dollars, upon half of which they give from 6 to 18 months' credit. Some of their goods they import direct from England, but more commonly purchase at Philadelphia; their journey for which purpose, to and from that city, occupies them three months: goods average 50 days in arriving. A house at Pittsburg advances money in payment of carriage, and attends to the receipt of the goods by waggon and their shipment by boats, for which the dealer here pays 5 per cent. commission. The credit which they receive at Philadelphia is from six to seven months; but they can seldom pay at the specified time, and are then charged 7 per cent. interest. Shopkeeping has been very profitable, but it certainly is now over-done: all complain that trade is extremely dull. I remark what appears to me an universal and most important error in all the stores,—too large a stock: by this means, tradesmen, in every country, are exposed to loss as much as by bad debts. Some of the best-informed inhabitants are of opinion that cotton, woollen, linen, and stocking-making would succeed, if large capital, with competent and varied skill, were employed; but in these opinions I place little confidence.

'The imports are, nearly every description of English goods, and some French and India: these are received *via* New Orleans, Baltimore, or Philadelphia; chiefly the two latter cities. The exports are flour, beef, pork, and butter. The town contains two chartered banks and one unchartered, all in respectable credit; a branch of "The United States' Bank" is also just established there; the paper money system has gone beyond all bounds throughout the western country. Specie

of the smallest amount is rarely to be seen, and the little which does exist is chiefly *cut* Spanish dollars, which are divided into bits of 50, 25, and 12½ cents. Notes of 3¼d., 6¼d., 18d., and 2s. 2d. are very common; indeed they constitute an important part of the circulating medium.

The town is built upon the model of Philadelphia; and should it ever become as large, which I think not improbable, its whole appearance will be more pleasing. There are five churches belonging to methodists, episcopalians, presbyterians, quakers, and baptists: two others, large in size and handsome in appearance, are now erecting. The school-house, when the whole plan is completed, will be a fine and extensive structure. In the first apartment, on the ground-floor, the Lancasterian plan is already in successful operation: I counted 150 scholars, among whom were children of the most respectable persons in the town; or, to use an American phrase, "of the first standing." The school-house is, like most establishments in this country, a joint stock concern. The terms for education, in the Lancasterian department, are, to share-holders, 11s. 3d. per quarter; others, 13s. 6d. There are in the same building three other departments (not Lancasterian); two for instruction in history, geography, and the classics; and the superior department for teaching languages. Males and females are taught in the same rooms, but sit on opposite sides. The terms for the historical, &c. department are, to share-holders, 22s. 6d. per quarter; others, 27s. There were present 21 males and 19 females. In the department of languages, the charge is, to share-holders, 36s. per quarter; others, 45s. Teachers are paid a yearly salary by the company: these men are, I believe, New Englanders, as are the schoolmasters in the western country generally.

I also visited a poor half-starved, civil schoolmaster: he has two miserable rooms, for which he pays 22s. 6d. per month: the number of scholars, both male and female, is 28: the terms for all branches 13s. 6d. per quarter: he complains of great difficulty in getting paid; and also of the *untameable insubordination of his scholars*. The superintendant of the

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Lancasterian school informs me, that they could not attempt to put in practice the greater part of the punishments as directed by the founder of that system.'

Since part of the works were published, from which the above account is extracted, the population of this place has greatly increased, and at present amounts to about 10,000. But this rapid advance cannot continue, as property is as high here as in Philadelphia, and all occupations are filled. The future progress of this town, though certain, must be gradual.

The country for 20 miles round Lexington is remarkably beautiful and fertile, and will probably become very populous.

Louisville is situated opposite the falls of the Ohio, on an elevation of 70 feet above the river, and extends along it from Bear Grass creek nearly half a mile. Its breadth is about half that distance. It is regularly laid out, with streets crossing one another at right angles; but the principal buildings are confined to one street. It consists of about 250 houses, many of them handsome brick buildings. Being a place of great resort on the river, it has an ample number of taverns and stores. Except the manufacture of ropes, rope-yarn, and cotton-bagging, which are carried on with spirit, there are no other manufactures of importance at Louisville, and the tradesmen are such as are calculated for the country. The price of labour here is nearly the same as at Cincinnati. Some articles of provision are dearer, this being a more convenient port for shipping than any above it. Flour sells for 5 dollars 50 cents per barrel; meal 50 cents per cwt. Boarding is from 1 dollar 25 cents to 2 dollars per week. Louisville, being the principal port of the western part of the state of Kentucky, is a market for the purchase of all kinds of produce, and the quantity that is annually shipped down the river is immense.

'As to the state of society,' observes Melish, 'I cannot say much. The place is composed of people from all quarters, who are principally engaged in commerce; and a great number of the traders on the Ohio are constantly at this place, whose example will be nothing in favour of the young; and slavery is against society every where. There are several

schools, but none of them are under public patronage; and education seems to be but indifferently attended to. Upon the whole, I must say, that the state of public morals admits of considerable improvement here; but indeed I saw Louisville at a season when a number of the most respectable people were out of the place. Those with whom I had business were gentlemen, and I hope there are a sufficient number of them to check the progress of gaming and drinking, and to teach the young and the thoughtless, that mankind, without virtue and industry, cannot be happy.

This town is favourably situated for trade, being the connecting link between New Orleans and the whole western country. It must soon take the lead of Lexington in extent of population, as it has already done in the rapid rise of town property, the increase of which since the year 1814 is said to have been 200 per cent. The population of this town is from 4 to 5000. Good brick buildings are fast increasing. One of the hotels (Gwathway's) is said to be rented at 6000 dollars per annum: from 150 to 200 persons dine at this establishment daily. About every tenth house in the main street is a doctor's: yet this place is said to be improving in health. The prevalent diseases are fever and ague; besides which, the common disorders of this state are, consumption, pleurisy, typhus, remittent and intermittent fevers, rheumatism, and dysentery.

Besides these towns, there are seven containing 400 inhabitants and upwards, viz. Beardstown, 821; Winchester, 538; Russelville, 532; Georgetown, 529; Versailles, 488; Danville, 432; Newport, 413: there are ten containing from 200 to 400; and thirteen containing from 100 to 200.

Trade and Resources.—The trade of this state has become of some importance. In 1816, there were shipped 30,000 hogsheads of tobacco, 80,000 barrels of flour, and above a million gallons of whiskey. The export of cordage, yarn, and bagging, has materially decreased in consequence of European competition. There is a class of tradesmen who purchase agricultural produce, and then convey it to Orleans.

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The value of houses, lands, and slaves, in 1815, was estimated at 87,018,897 dollars, the land being valued at 4 dollars per acre.

Education.—The legislature of Virginia made provision for a college in Kentucky, and endowed it with very considerable landed property. The state of education is improving. The terms are various: the best is 45*l.* per annum, including board. Schoolmasters of talent and respectability are in demand in Kentucky. Instances exist of their realising from 700 to 1400 dollars per annum.

Religion.—The baptists are the most numerous sect in this state. There are also several presbyterian congregations, and some few of other denominations. But rational religion is at a very low ebb among the Kentuckians.

Government.—This state is divided into 54 counties. The government consists of three parts; legislative, executive, and judiciary. The legislature consists of a house of representatives, the members of which are chosen annually; and a senate, of which the members are elected for four years, one fourth being chosen every year. Every *free* male above 21 years of age has a vote for the representatives, and also for the governor, who is elected for four years, and is ineligible to fill that office for seven years thereafter. The judiciary is vested in a supreme court, and such inferior courts as may be appointed by law, and the judges hold their offices during good behaviour. The constitution declares, among others, the following fundamental principles: all power is inherent in the people; all men have a right to worship God according to the dictates of their own consciences; all elections shall be free and equal; trial by jury shall be held sacred; printing presses shall be free.

History.—The first white man we have certain accounts of, who discovered this province, was one James M'Bride, who in company with some others, in the year 1754, passing down the Ohio in canoes, landed at the mouth of Kentucky river, and there marked a tree, with the first letters of his name, and the date, which remains to this day. These men reconnoitered the country, and returned home with the pleasing news of their

discovery of the best tract of land in North America, and probably in the world. From this period it remained concealed till about the year 1767, when one John Finley and some others, trading with the Indians, travelled over the fertile region now called Kentucky, then but known to the Indians by the name of the Dark and Bloody Grounds, and sometimes the Middle Ground. This country greatly engaged Mr. Finley's attention. Some time after, disputes arising between the Indians and traders, he was obliged to decamp; and returned to his place of residence in North Carolina, where he communicated his discovery to colonel Daniel Boon and a few more, who conceiving it to be an interesting object, agreed in the year 1769 to undertake to explore it. After a long fatiguing march, over a mountainous wilderness, in a westward direction, they at length arrived upon its borders; and from the top of an eminence, with joy and wonder, descried the beautiful landscape of Kentucky. Here they encamped, and some went to hunt provisions, while colonel Boon and John Finley made a tour through the country, which they found far exceeding their expectations, and returning to camp, informed their companions of their discoveries. But in spite of this promising beginning, this company, meeting with nothing but hardships and adversity, grew exceedingly disheartened, and was plundered, dispersed, and killed by the Indians, except colonel Boon, who continued an inhabitant of the wilderness until the year 1771, when he returned home.

About this time, Kentucky had drawn the attention of several gentlemen. Dr. Walker of Virginia, with a number more, made a tour westward for discoveries, endeavouring to find the Ohio river; and afterwards he and general Lewis, at fort Stanwix, purchased from the Five Nations of Indians the lands lying on the north side of Kentucky.

Colonel Henderson, of North Carolina, being informed of this country by colonel Boon, he and some other gentlemen held a treaty with the Cherokee Indians at Wataga, in March, 1775, and then purchased from them the lands lying on the south side of Kentucky river, for goods, at valuable rates, to the amount of 6000*l*. specie.

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Soon after this purchase, the state of Virginia took the alarm, and disputed colonel Henderson's right of purchase, as a private gentleman of another state, in behalf of himself. However, for his eminent services to this country, and for having been instrumental in making so valuable an acquisition to Virginia, that state was pleased to reward him with a tract of land at the mouth of Green river, to the amount of 200,000 acres; and the state of North Carolina gave him the like quantity in Powel's valley.

In 1790, Kentucky was, with consent of Virginia, formed into a separate state, and adopted a state constitution, which was revised and amended in 1799. The state was admitted into the union in 1792, and sends two senators and six representatives to congress: the latter are now to be nearly doubled, in consequence of the increase of population.

NORTH CAROLINA.

Situation and Extent. NORTH CAROLINA is situated between north lat. 33 deg. 47 min. and 36 deg. 30 min., and 1 deg. east and 6 deg. 45 min. west long. Its greatest length, from east to west, is 472, and its greatest breadth, from north to south, is 188 miles. It contains 49,000 square miles, 31,360,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—The face of the country is much diversified. To the east and south-east, there is a sea coast of nearly 300 miles, indented with a great number of bays, the principal of which are Albemarle and Pamlico sounds, which receive the greater part of the rivers. On the outside of these sounds are some of the most remarkable capes in America, cape Hatteras, and cape Lookout, and to the southward is cape Fear. The whole country below the head of tide water,

about 100 miles into the interior, is low and sandy, abounding in swamps, and presents an evident appearance of having been at one period overflowed by the sea. The country from the head of the tide waters, towards the mountains, is agreeably uneven, and much improved in value. Among the mountains it is exactly similar to the state of Virginia; but being a few degrees to the south, the value of the country is improved, and the seasons in that district are delightful.

The state is, upon the whole, well watered. The rivers fall into the Atlantic ocean, and have been all noticed. It is supposed that the state is well supplied with valuable minerals, particularly in the mountainous district. Iron ore is very plentiful, and gold has been found in considerable quantities. There are various mineral springs.

The soil of North Carolina is very similar to that of Virginia. The low part of the state, which is a considerable portion of it, is low, sandy, and barren, abounding in pine trees; and the swamps, which are very large, produce cedars and bay trees. There are, in this district, good tracts of meadow land along the rivers, which are well cultivated, and produce abundantly. From the head of the tide waters to the mountains, the soil improves, and is very various. The mountainous district is very similar to that in Virginia.

The climate in the low country is subject to great and sudden changes, and is often unhealthy in the fall. Generally, the winters are mild, but very changeable. The spring is early, but subject to occasional frosts. The summers are hot and sultry, and the autumns are serene and beautiful; but the exhalations from the decaying vegetable matter in the marshes and swamps are very injurious to health. In the upper country, the weather is more settled, and, being free from swamps, is healthy. Among the mountains, the climate is remarkably pleasant.

The country is generally covered with herbage of various kinds, and a species of wild grass. It abounds with medicinal plants and roots. Among others are the ginseng, Virginia snake root, Seneca snake root, an herb of the emetic kind, like the ipecacuanha; lion's heart, which is a sovereign remedy for

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the bite of a serpent. A species of the sensitive plant is also found here: it is a sort of brier, the stalk of which dies with the frost, but the root lives through the winter, and shoots again in the spring. The lightest touch of a leaf causes it to turn and cling close to the stalk. Although it so easily takes the alarm, and apparently shrinks from danger, in the space of two minutes after it is touched, it perfectly recovers its former situation. The *mucipula veneris* is also found here. The rich bottoms are overgrown with canes. Their leaves are green all the winter, and afford an excellent food for cattle. They are of a sweetish taste, like the stalks of green corn, which they in many respects resemble.

Population.—The number of inhabitants in this state amounted in 1817 to 701,224, which is about 14½ persons to a square mile.

Manners, &c.—The state of society is somewhat similar to Virginia. The inhabitants are mostly farmers and planters, and their frankness and hospitality are mixed up with all the vices that distinguish slave masters. Temperance and industry are not to be reckoned among their virtues. Their time is usually consumed in drinking, idling, and gaming. Even the Sunday is devoted to the convivial visitings of the white inhabitants, and the noisy diversions of the negroes. The women, except in some of the populous towns, have very little intercourse with each other, and are almost entirely destitute of the bloom and vivacity of the north.

Time that is not employed in study or useful labour, in every country, is generally spent in hurtful or innocent exercises, according to the custom of the place, or the taste of the parties. The citizens of North Carolina, who are not better employed, spend their time in drinking, or gaming at cards or dice, in cock-fighting, or horse-racing. Many of the interludes are filled up with a boxing match; and these matches frequently become memorable by feats of *gouging*.

The *delicate and entertaining diversion*, with propriety called *gouging*, is thus performed. When two *boxers* are wearied with fighting and bruising each other, they come, as it is called, to *close quarters*, and each endeavours to twist his

fore-fingers in the ear-locks of his antagonist. When these are fast clenched, the thumbs are extended each way to the nose, and the eyes *gently* turned out of their sockets. The victor, for his expertness, receives shouts of applause from the sportive throng; while his poor *eyeless* antagonist is laughed at for his misfortune.

'The general topics of conversation among the men,' says an American, 'when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene, are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice, tobacco, &c. They appear to have as little taste for the sciences as for religion. Political enquiries, and philosophical disquisitions, are attended to but by a few men of genius and industry, and are too laborious for the indolent minds of the people at large. Less attention and respect are paid to the women here, than in those parts of the United States where the inhabitants have made greater progress in the arts of civilized life. Indeed, it is a truth, confirmed by observation, that in proportion to the advancement of civilization, in the same proportion will respect for the women be increased; so that the progress of civilization in countries, in states, in towns, and in families, may be marked by the degree of attention which is paid by husbands to their wives, and by the young men to the young women.'

Chief Towns.—*Newbern* is situated at the confluence of the Nuse and Trent rivers, on a level point of land, somewhat resembling Charleston, South Carolina; and it carries on a considerable trade with other places in the state, and the West Indies. The population is about 4000, of whom above one half are slaves.

Wilmington is the most commercial town in the state. It is situated at the junction of the two branches of Cape Fear river, 35 miles from the sea; and, being the place of depôt for a large back country, it carries on a considerable trade, foreign and domestic. The town contains about 2000 inhabitants. The houses are mostly built of wood, and the town has suffered severely from fire at various times.

Edenton, on Albemarle sound, is one of the oldest towns in the state, and was formerly the seat of the royal governors.

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It is favourably situated for trade, but is low and unhealthy. It contains about 750 inhabitants.

The other towns of most note are, *Washington*, *Tarborough*, and *Hillsborough*, on the Tar river; *Halifax*, on the Roanoke; *Salem*, on the Yadkin; *Morgantown*, on the Catawba; and *Beauford*, near cape Lookout. The population of these places is from about 300 to 700; and there are many villages containing from 100 to 300.

The roads and bridges are yet in an imperfect state, and much remains to be done to make travelling comfortable.

Trade and Resources.—The inhabitants produce on their farms every necessary of life. The principal commodities for sale are, tar, turpentine, pitch, rosin, timber, bees' wax, corn, cotton, and tobacco. Almost every family in the country manufacture their own clothing, so that the British trade to this state is not great, nor important. The greater part of it is carried on through the medium of Charleston, or the northern states.

The value of houses, lands, and slaves in this state, in 1815, amounted to 93,723,031 dollars, the land being estimated at two dollars and a half per acre. The duties on merchandise were 357,804 dollars. There were, at the same time, 25,826 tons employed in foreign trade, and 3234 in the coasting trade.

Education.—The North Carolinians are in general so much absorbed in dissipated pursuits, that the improvement of their minds is usually neglected. Considerable efforts have, however, been made to place education on a respectable footing. A university has been founded, and endowed by the state; and there are several respectable academies. But the most important branch, that which has for its object the *general* diffusion of knowledge, has been neglected until of late. In 1808, however, an act passed the legislature to establish common schools throughout the state, which, if followed up, will produce good effects.

Religion.—Previous to the revolution, most of the inhabitants of this state professed themselves of the episcopal church; but when the clergy emigrated in consequence of their attachment to England, the people never thought it necessary to

have their places filled up. There is now very little appearance of religion existing. The baptists and methodists have indeed sent a number of missionary preachers into various districts, and in some instances they have been tolerably successful. The Moravians have several flourishing settlements in this state, and a number of Irish presbyterians have settled in the western parts.

Government.—The legislative authority is vested in a senate and house of commons, together styled the General Assembly, and chosen annually. Senators must be possessed of 800 acres of land; representatives of 100. The electors of senators must be possessed of 50 acres of land; and of representatives a freehold in some town. The executive is vested in a governor, elected by the general assembly, and he is not eligible to serve more than three years in six. He is assisted by a council of state, consisting of seven persons, elected by the assembly annually. The judiciary consists of a supreme court, a court of equity, and a court of admiralty. The judges are appointed by the assembly. This state is divided into eight districts and 60 counties.

History.—The history of North Carolina is less known than that of any of the other states. The first permanent settlement was made about the year 1710, by a number of Palatines from Germany, who had been reduced to circumstances of great indigence by a calamitous war. The proprietors of Carolina, knowing that the value of their lands depended on the strength of their settlements, determined to give every possible encouragement to such emigrants. Ships were accordingly provided for their transportation; and instructions were given to governor Tynte to allow 100 acres of land for every man, woman, and child, free of quit-rents for the first ten years; but at the expiration of that term, to pay one penny per acre, annual rent for ever, according to the usages and customs of the province. Upon their arrival, governor Tynte granted them a tract of land in North Carolina, since called Albemarle and Bath precincts, where they settled, and flattered themselves with having found, in the hideous wilderness, a happy retreat from the desolations of a war which then raged in Europe.

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In the year 1712, a dangerous conspiracy was formed by the Coree and Tuscorora tribes of Indians, to murder and expel this infant colony. They managed their conspiracy with great cunning and profound secrecy. They surrounded their principal town with a breast-work, to secure their families. Here the warriors convened to the number of 1800. From this place of rendezvous they sent out small parties, by different roads, who entered the settlement under the mask of friendship. At the change of the full moon, all of them had agreed to begin their murderous operations the same night. When the night came, they entered the houses of the planters, demanding provisions, and pretending to be offended, fell to murdering men, women, and children without mercy or distinction. One hundred and thirty-seven settlers, among whom were a Swiss baron, and almost all the poor Palatines that had lately come into the country, were slaughtered the first night. Such was the secrecy and dispatch of the Indians in this expedition, that none knew what had befallen his neighbour until the barbarians had reached his own door. Some few, however, escaped, and gave the alarm. The militia assembled in arms, and kept watch day and night, until the news of the sad disaster reached the province of South Carolina. Governor Craven lost no time in sending a force to their relief. The assembly voted 4000*l*. for the service of the war. A body of 600 militia, under the command of colonel Barnwell, and 866 Indians of different tribes, with different commanders, marched with great expedition through a hideous wilderness to their assistance. In their first encounter with the Indians, they killed 300, and took 100 prisoners. After this defeat, the Tuscororas retreated to their fortified town, which was shortly after surrendered to colonel Barnwell.

After this, the infant colony remained in peace, and continued to flourish under the general government of South Carolina, till about the year 1729, when the proprietors vested their property and jurisdiction in the crown, and the colony was erected into a separate province, by the name of North Carolina, and its present limits established, by an order of George II. In 1785, the inhabitants of the counties of Sulli-

van, Washington, and Greene, erected themselves into a new state, by the name of the *New State of Franklin*; but, after many warm disputes, which lasted nearly three years, their pretensions to independence were relinquished. North Carolina was greatly distinguished for spirit, activity, and bravery, during the revolutionary war.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Situation and Extent. THIS state is situated between north lat. 32 deg. 6 min. and 35 deg., and west long. 1 deg. 30 min. and 6 deg. 25 min. Its extreme length from east to west is 236, and breadth from north to south 210 miles; and it is computed to contain an area of 32,700 square miles, being 20,928,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—South Carolina has a sea coast on the Atlantic, extending nearly 300 miles, to which all its rivers flow. The angle of the coast is from north-east to south-west; and nearly parallel with this, at about 120 miles from the coast, the first high land commences. The whole of the intermediate space is nearly a continued level, the angle of ascent being so trifling, that the rise at the extremity does not exceed 15 or 20 feet. From the commencement of the high lands the face of the country is variegated, and agreeably uneven, swelling sometimes into considerable hills; and this continues to the north-west extremity of the state, where it is bounded by the mountains.

The state is remarkably well watered. The Savannah river forms the boundary line between it and Georgia, through its whole course. This river has been noticed; besides which there are—

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Santee, the largest river in South Carolina, is formed by two very large streams, the Congaree and Wateree, in the interior of the country. Thence running upwards of 100 miles, in an east-south-east direction, it divides, and falls into the Atlantic ocean by two channels not far apart. The Wateree rises at the foot of the mountains in North Carolina, where it is denominated the Catawba, and, pursuing a south-east course, is joined by many tributary streams, and forms a junction with the Congaree, upwards of 200 miles from its source. The Congaree rises also in North Carolina, within a few miles of the Catawba, and pursues a south-east course about 70 miles, when it crosses the state line, and runs due south about 50 miles; it then runs south-east about 130 miles, and forms the junction aforesaid. In its passage through South Carolina, it receives a great many tributary streams, some of which are large rivers, particularly the Tyger, Enneree, and Reedy rivers.

The Great Pedee is a fine flowing river; next to the Santee, the largest in South Carolina. It rises in North Carolina among the mountains, and has in that state the name of Yadkin river. From thence it continues a south-east course, and after being joined by large tributary streams, particularly Little Pedee, Lynch's creek, and Black river, it falls into the sea, 12 miles below Georgetown. Its whole length is upwards of 300 miles, and it waters an extensive tract of country. It is navigable for sea vessels to Georgetown, and for smaller vessels 100 miles higher up. It flows with a strong current. Its banks are said to be fertile; but in the low country are very unhealthy.

Cooper and Ashley river, which form a junction at Charleston. Cooper river rises about 50 miles north-north-west of Charleston, not far from the Santee river. It is a mile wide, nine miles above Charleston, and is navigable to its source, from whence there is a canal to the Santee. Ashley river rises to the north-west of Charleston, and derives its principal importance from the circumstance of its forming part of the harbour of that city.

Edisto river rises near the extremity of the low country, and runs a south-east course, including its windings, of 150 miles, when it enters into the Atlantic, by two principal channels, called north and south Edisto. The space between them forms the Edisto island.

Cambahee river rises near Edgefield court-house, and running a south-east direction, upwards of 130 miles, falls into St. Helena sound.

Coosaw river rises in Orangeburg district, and running a south-east course, through Black swamp, falls into Broad river, which last is an arm of the sea, in some places seven or eight miles broad, and forms, at Beaufort, one of the finest harbours in the United States. Beaufort and St. Helena islands are formed by the confluence of these rivers and inlets; and there is a spacious entrance by Port Republican, formerly termed Port Royal.

The whole of the low country presents an even regular soil, formed by a blackish sand, and pretty deep in those places where there are no stones. Seven tenths of it is covered with pines of one species, which, as the soil is drier and lighter, grow loftier and not so branchy. In some places they are interspersed with oaks. The pine barrens are crossed by little swamps, in the midst of which generally flows a rivulet; and they have different degrees of fertility, indicated by the trees that grow on them. In the upper country, the most fertile lands are situated upon the borders of the rivers and creeks; the lands that occupy the intermediate spaces are much less fertile. The latter are not much cultivated; and those who occupy them are obliged to be perpetually clearing them to obtain more abundant harvests. The forests are chiefly composed of oaks, hickory, maples, and poplars. Chesnut-trees do not begin to appear for 60 miles on this side of the mountains.

Michaux, who travelled through this country in 1803, says, 'Columbia is about 120 miles from Charleston. For the whole of this space, particularly from Orangeburg, composed of 20 houses, the road crosses an even country, sandy and dry during the summer; whilst in the autumn and winter it is so

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covered with water in several places, for the space of eight or ten miles, that the horses are up to their middles. Every two or three miles we met with a miserable log-house upon the road, surrounded with little fields of Indian corn, the slender stalks of which are very seldom more than five or six feet high, and which, from the second harvest, do not yield more than four or five bushels an acre. In the mean time, notwithstanding its sterility, this land is sold at the rate of two dollars per acre.

The extensive and dreary forests called *pine barrens*, which abound in this state, are thus described by Mr. Lambert, an English traveller: 'On entering the road leading from Charleston to Savannah,' says he, 'I never felt myself more disposed for gloomy reflections. A habitation is seldom seen, except at intervals of 10 or 12 miles, or when you approach a savannah or swamp; for the plantations are all settled a considerable distance from the road, and paths of communications are cut through the woods; so that, in travelling through the southern states, you are enveloped in almost one continued forest. A contrary practice is adopted in the northern and middle states, where a succession of farms, meadows, gardens, and habitations, continually meet the eye of the traveller; and if hedges were substituted for rail fences, those states would very much resemble some of the English counties.

'The pine barrens are without any stones on their surface, for 80 miles or more from the sea. The land rises by an almost imperceptible ascent to that distance, where the elevation is said to be near 200 feet above the level of the ocean, and forms the boundary between the middle and lower parts of the state. Through this tract of country the pine barrens have little or no underwood, some species of shrub oak excepted, the ground being generally covered with coarse wild grasses. This is probably not its natural appearance, but is caused by the custom of burning the dry grass in the spring, in order to hasten early pasturage, at the same time destroying the young shrubs, which would otherwise shoot up and form a thick underwood between the pines. From this practice, the forests frequently exhibit on each side the road a dismal appearance,

from the great number of trees half burnt and scorched and blacked by the fire; others lying on the ground, or ready to fall with the first high wind; and in several places it is rather hazardous travelling in stormy weather. Almost every week the driver of the stage coach has to cut away large trunks or branches that have fallen across the road; or, if there is an opening sufficiently wide among the trees, he chooses rather to go round than trouble himself to use his axe.

The pines are chiefly of the pitch and yellow species, and grow to the height of 100 feet and more, with a handsome straight stem, two-thirds of which, upwards, are free from branches. They make excellent masts and timber for vessels, and yield abundance of pitch, tar, rosin, and turpentine. The stumps of several which have been cut down were covered with the resinous matter that had been extracted from the top by the heat of the sun. Where the soil improves, which is sometimes the case even in the midst of these barrens, the eye is relieved from the monotonous solemnity of the lofty pine, by a variety of other trees, consisting principally of live oak; red, white, and chesnut oaks; hickory, elm, beech, maple, &c. and numerous shrubs, plants, and flowers. In several places, natural hedges are formed of the shrubs and underwood that escape the ravages of fire; these are intermingled with a variety of flowers, among which the honeysuckles, woodbines, and yellow jessamines are most conspicuous. When I passed, they were in full blossom, and the flowers at once pleased the eye, and impregnated the air with their delightful odours.

As I proceeded on my journey, the pine trees, which have their branches towards their summits, formed a complete grove over my head, and almost excluded the sky from my view: in the morning this shady walk was extremely pleasant, but as the day began to close I would willingly have preferred a less gloomy retreat. Every step I took was still the same, and nothing disturbed the solemn silence of the forest, save the whistling murmurs of the wind, the skipping of a few deer across the road, and the rustling of the black snakes amid the grass and fallen branches of the trees. Now and then, indeed,

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the crash of an enormous pine tree tumbling to the earth would ruffle the stillness which prevailed, and arouse me from a reverie of thought into which I had fallen, as I pensively measured my steps through the gloomy wilderness; but the sound, after reverberating for a few seconds, died away in distant murmurs through the woods, and all was again silent.

The climate in the low country is materially different from that in the upper country, the former being much less congenial to health than the latter. The summers are exceedingly hot and sultry, and the heat abates but little, except in the evenings and mornings, till past the middle of October. From the first of July to that period, the country is in many places subject to much sickness, particularly bilious fevers, agues, &c. The fall weather is generally beautiful, and continues till past Christmas; the average temperature is greater than an English summer. The winters are generally mild, and there is very little frost, but the weather is sometimes subject to great and sudden changes. The spring commences about the middle of February, and they have often green peas in the market by the middle of March; but the weather intermits very much till about the first of May, when it gets steadily warm, and continues increasing with the season till September, when it begins to abate. Almost every person who can afford it, removes to a more healthy situation during this period, and a vast number go to the northern states in summer, and return in the fall. The period of going north is mostly from the middle of May till the middle of July, and of returning, from the middle of October till the middle of November. The anxiety that prevails during that period is extreme; and when it is over, the inhabitants congratulate one another with the full prospect of 10 or 11 months being added to their existence. In the upper country, the summers are much more temperate, and being removed from the swamps, there is no sickness. Towards the mountains, the climate is delightful.

The principal mineral is iron, which, indeed, is found in great plenty in all the states; and gold, silver, and copper ores have been found here. Marble has been found in some few

places, and also black lead. There are several valuable mineral springs in the state.

Population.—The population of this state in 1817 amounted to 564,785, which is upwards of 17 persons to a square mile.

Manners, &c.—The character of the Carolinians has been well described by a late traveller. He acknowledges that the planters are hospitable, but always in want of money. ‘When they receive cash in advance,’ says he, ‘for their crops of cotton or rice, it is immediately squandered away in the luxuries of fashion, good eating or drinking, or an excursion into the northern states; where, after dashing about for a month or two, with *tandems*, *curricles*, *livery servants*, and *outriders*, they frequently return home in the *stage coach*, with scarcely dollars enough in their pocket to pay their expences on the road. If their creditors of ten or a dozen years standing become clamorous, a small sum is perhaps paid them in part, unless the law interferes, and compels them to pay the whole debt and as much for costs. Thus the planter proceeds in his career of extravagance, which in the midst of his riches renders him continually poor. With an estate worth 200,000 dollars, he has seldom a dollar in his pocket but what is borrowed upon an anticipated crop: hence it may be truly said, that he lives only from hand to mouth.

‘Unlike the farmer and merchant of the northern states, who are *themselves* indefatigably employed from morning to night, the Carolinian lolls at his ease under the shady piazza before his house, *smoking segars* and drinking *sangoree*; while his numerous slaves and overseers are cultivating a rice swamp or cotton field with the sweat of their brow, the produce of which is to furnish their luxurious master with the means of figuring away for a few months in the city, or an excursion to the northward. Property thus easily acquired is as readily squandered away; and the Carolinian, regarding only the present moment for the enjoyment of his pleasures, runs into extravagance and debt.

‘The merchants, traders, and shopkeepers of Charleston are obliged to lay a profit, frequently of 150 to 200 per cent.

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and more, upon their goods, for the long credit which the gentry are accustomed to take. Where they meet with good payments, they seldom fail to realize an independent fortune, for they sell nothing under 50 per cent., even for ready money; but it often happens that, after they retire from business, they have a number of debts to collect in.

'The Carolinians,' observes our author, 'are particularly expert at rifle-shooting; and articles, instead of being put up at vendue, are often shot for, with rifles, at a small price each shot, which is a more useful and honourable mode than the practice of raffling adopted in the lower country. This method of disposing of goods is worthy of imitation in England, and would soon render the people excellent marksmen.

'In the southern states, the incomes of the planters and farmers are various, ranging from 80,000 to 40 dollars. Very few, however, receive incomes of the magnitude of the former sum. Many receive from 12,000 to 20,000 dollars per annum; but the majority of the planters are only in the annual receipt of from 8000 to 6000 dollars.'

Like all other inhabitants of a warm climate, the Carolinians arrive sooner at maturity than the natives of colder regions. They possess great quickness and vivacity of genius; but the ladies are pale and languid, though the softness and delicacy of their appearance and manners render them very engaging.

'There is perhaps no instance,' says Mr. Morse, 'in which the richer class of people trespass more on propriety than in the mode of conducting their funerals. That a decent respect be paid to the dead, is the natural dictate of refined humanity; but this is not done by sumptuous and expensive entertainments, splendid decorations, and pompous ceremonies, which a misguided fashion has here introduced and rendered necessary. In Charleston and other parts of the state, no persons attend a funeral any more than a wedding, unless they are particularly invited. Wine, punch and all kinds of liquors, tea, coffee, cake, &c. in profusion, are handed round on these solemn occasions. In short, one would suppose that the religious proverb of the wise man, "It is better to go to the house of mourning than to the house of feasting," would be unintel-

ligible and wholly inapplicable here, as it would be difficult to distinguish the house of mourning from the house of feasting.

† The Jews in Charleston, among other peculiarities in burying their dead, have this: After the funeral dirge is sung, and just before the corpse is deposited in the grave, the coffin is opened, and a small bag of earth, taken from the grave, is carefully put under the head of the deceased; then some powder, said to be earth brought from Jerusalem, and carefully kept for this purpose, is taken and put upon the eyes of the corpse, in token of their remembrance of the holy land, and of their expectations of returning thither in God's appointed time.

Chief Towns.—*Charleston* is built upon a level sandy soil, and is elevated but a few feet above the height of spring tides. The streets extend east and west between the Ashley and Cooper rivers; and others intersect at right angles from north to south. From its open exposure to the ocean, it is subject to storms and inundations, which affect the security of its harbour. The city has also suffered much by fires: the last, in 1796, destroyed upwards of 500 houses, and occasioned 300,000*l.* sterling damage.

The number of dwelling-houses, public buildings, and warehouses, &c. at present in Charleston, is estimated at 5000. With the exception of Meeting street, Broad street, and the Bay, the streets are in general narrow and confined. They are all unpaved; and in blowing weather whirlwinds of dust and sand fill the houses, and blind the eyes of the people. The foot paths are all constructed of bricks; but a few years ago not even this convenience existed.

The houses in the streets near the water side, including that part of the town between Meeting street and the street called East Bay, are lofty and closely built. The bricks are of a peculiar nature, being of a porous texture, and capable of resisting the weather better than the firm, close, red brick of the northern states. They are made in Carolina, and are of a dark brown colour, which gives the buildings a gloomy appearance. The roofs are tiled or slated. In this part of the town the principal shopkeepers and merchants have their stores, ware-

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houses, and counting-houses. Houses here bear a very high rent: those in Broad and Church streets for shops, let for upwards of 300*l.* per annum; those along the Bay with warehouse let for 700*l.* and more, according to the size and situation of the buildings. The shipping, as at New York, lie along the wharfs, or small docks and slips along the town.

The houses in Meeting street and the back parts of the town are many of them handsomely built; some of brick, others of wood. They are in general lofty and extensive, and are separated from each other by small houses or yards, in which the kitchens and out-offices are built. Almost every house is furnished with balconies and verandas, some of which occupy the whole side of the building from top to bottom, having a gallery from each floor. They are sometimes shaded with Venetian blinds, and afford the inhabitants a pleasant cool retreat from the scorching beams of the sun. Most of the modern houses are built with much taste and elegance; but the chief aim seems to be, to make them as cool as possible. The town is also crowded with wooden buildings of a very inferior description.

Three of the public buildings, and the episcopal church of St. Michael, are situated at the four corners formed by the intersection of Broad and Meeting streets, the two principal avenues in Charleston.

The principal public buildings, besides those which have been already enumerated, are, the exchange, a large respectable building situated in the East Bay, opposite Broad street; a poor-house; a college, or rather grammar-school; a theatre; and an orphan-house. This latter building is worthy of the city of Charleston. It contains about 150 children of both sexes, and the annual expence for provision, clothing, firewood, &c. is 14,000 dollars, which is defrayed by the legislature of the state of South Carolina.

The market of Charleston is well supplied, and the expence of living nearly the same as at New York. The population is reckoned about 28,000, of whom 20,000 are negroes and people of colour.

There are a great number of Jews settled in Charleston; and they live principally in King street, where their shops are crowded together, and exhibit as motley a collection of clothing and wearing apparel as can be found in Houndsditch or Rag-fair. They are sufficiently numerous to have a synagogue: and one company of the volunteer militia is formed entirely of Jews. They are, as is the case in most countries, monied people: and on their sabbaths the young Jewesses walk out in fine flowing dresses, that would better suit the stage or ball-room than the street.

Of the traders and shopkeepers settled in Charleston, a great number are Scotch, who generally acquire considerable property, by close and persevering habits of industry; after which, they most commonly return to their native country. There are also several Irish traders, but their number is far inferior to the Scotch. There are no white servants in Charleston. Every kind of work is performed by negroes and people of colour. The importations of Africans into the States ceased by law on the 1st of January, 1808. This caused, about the time of the prohibition, a rise in the price of slaves, who are usually disposed of by auction.

During the wars of the French revolution, Charleston was the medium of the greatest part of that trade which has been carried on between the French West India islands and the mother country, under the neutral flag of the United States. The number of vessels that entered the port of Charleston in 1801 amounted to 1274, of which 875 belonged to that port; the rest were chiefly British vessels. At the time the embargo reached Charleston, the number of vessels in port were, ships 78, brigs 42, schooners and sloops 85; total 205.

Columbia, on the Congaree river, 120 miles from Charleston, is the seat of government, and is a place of considerable trade. The number of its houses does not exceed 200; they are almost all built of wood, and painted grey and yellow; and, although there are very few of them more than two stories high, they have a very respectable appearance. The inhabitants of the upper country, who do not approve of sending

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their provisions to Charleston, stop at Columbia, where they dispose of them at several respectable shops established in the town.

Georgetown is situated at the confluence of Pocomoke and Black rivers 12 miles from the sea, and contains about 2000 inhabitants. It is the only sea port in South Carolina, except Charleston, and has a considerable trade, particularly in rice, of which it is said that the lands in its neighbourhood produce 30,000 tierces annually. The houses are mostly built of wood, and are but indifferent. The principal public buildings are, a court-house, jail, an episcopal church, a presbyterian church, one for baptists, one for methodists, and a flourishing academy.

Trade and Resources.—While agriculture is so much attended to, and the means of engaging in it so easy, it is not surprising that few direct their attention to manufactures. Some years ago a cotton manufactory was established near Statesborough, which bid fair to rise into consideration. It was, however, soon perceived that the price of labour was too great to permit its goods to stand any competition with those of similar qualities imported from Great Britain: consequently the proprietors were obliged to discontinue their operations. A numerous population and scarcity of lands must first be experienced in a country before its inhabitants will resort to manufactures, while a more eligible mode of subsistence exists. In the upper country, however, necessity has obliged the inhabitants to provide for their respective wants from their own resources, in consequence of the difficulty and expence of conveying bulky articles from the sea coast into the interior. The traveller there soon becomes accustomed to the humming music of the spinning-wheel and the loom. Cottons and woollens of various descriptions are made in sufficient quantities for domestic use; and if we except the articles of salt and sugar, the people in the upper parts of the state may be considered independent of foreign support; for carpenters, smiths, masons, tanners, shoemakers, saddlers, hatters, millwrights, and other tradesmen, are conveniently situated throughout the country; and the materials necessary for their respective professions are met with in abundance.

In every part of this state cotton is produced. Rice and Indian corn also grows in abundance in the low swampy districts, and quantities of tobacco are annually exported from Charleston.

The total value of lands, houses, and slaves, in 1815, was estimated at 123,416,512 dollars, the average value of land being stated at 8 dollars per acre. The gross duties of merchandise were 1,466,907 dollars. The shipping employed in foreign trade amounted to 12,380 tons, and in the coasting trade to 287 tons.

Education.—The operation of slavery to so great an extent produces, of course, the same effects here as in other places; but the people have considerably improved in education and morals since the revolution. It was customary, for a long period, for the more wealthy planters to send their sons to Europe for education; and even now they frequently send them to the northern states; but the practice is gradually declining, and the desire has become general to have respectable seminaries in the state. A college has been founded, and very respectably endowed, at Columbia; and there are several other colleges and academies throughout the state. The towns are pretty well supplied with common schools; but they are defective in the country; and this branch of education, being the basis of the morality of the state, deserves the early attention of the legislature.

Religion.—The state of religion is nearly the same as in North Carolina. The high country is mostly settled by presbyterians, baptists, and methodists; but upon the sea coast, the inhabitants generally profess to be episcopalians.

Government.—South Carolina is divided into 36 judiciary districts, and some of these are subdivided into parishes. The civil government is, like that of the other states, legislative, executive, and judiciary. The legislative power is vested in a general assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives. The senators are chosen for four years, and one half vacate their seats every two years: they must be 35 years of age, and possessed of a freehold estate of the value of 300*l*. sterling, clear of debt; and the electors must be possessed of

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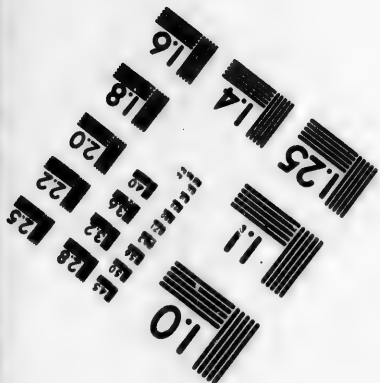
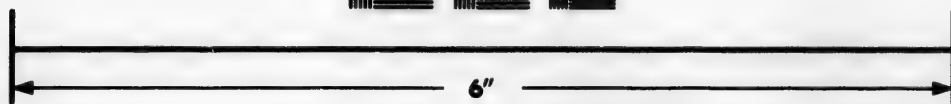
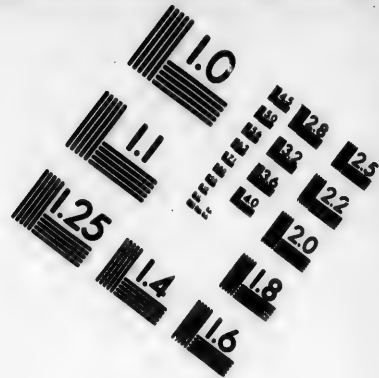
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50 acres of land, or a town lot, or have paid a tax of three shillings sterling. The representatives must be 21 years of age, and be possessed of a freehold estate of 150*l.* clear of debt; and the electors must have the same qualifications as for senators. The executive government is vested in a governor, chosen for two years, by the legislature; and the qualifications to fill that office are, that he be 30 years of age, and be possessed of 1500*l.* sterling. The judges of the superior courts, commissioners of the treasury, secretary of state, and surveyor-general, are all elected by the legislature.

History.—In 1662, Charles II. granted to lord Clarendon, and others, a tract of land extending from north lat. 29 deg. to 36 deg. 31 min., and from the Atlantic to the Pacific ocean, which they called Carolina. The first permanent settlement was made at Charleston, under their direction, in 1669, for the government of which the famous Mr. Locke drew up a constitution. It was aristocratical and impracticable, though very ingenious in theory. Three classes of nobility were to be established, viz. barons, cassiques, and landgraves. The first to possess twelve, the second twenty-four, and the third forty-eight thousand acres of land, which was to be unalienable.

During the continuance of the proprietary government, a period of 50 years (reckoning from 1669 to 1719), the colony was involved in perpetual quarrels. Oftentimes they were harassed by the Indians, sometimes infested with pirates, frequently invaded by the French and Spanish fleets, constantly uneasy under their injudicious government, and quarrelling with their governors. But their most bitter dissensions were respecting religion. The episcopalians, being more numerous than the dissenters, attempted to exclude the latter from a seat in the legislature. These attempts so far succeeded, that the church of England, by a majority of votes, was established by law. This illiberal act threw the colony into the utmost confusion, and was followed by a train of evil consequences, which proved to be the principal cause of the revolution. Notwithstanding the act establishing the church of England was repealed, tranquillity was not restored to the colony. A change of government was generally desired by the colonists. They





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found that they were not sufficiently protected by their proprietary constitution, and effected a revolution about the year 1719, and the government became regal.

In 1728, the proprietors accepted £2,500*l.* sterling from the crown, for the property and jurisdiction, except lord Granville, who reserved his eighth of the property, which has never yet been formally given up. At this time the constitution was new modelled, and the territory, limited by the original charter, was divided into North and South Carolinas. From this period the colony began to flourish. It was protected by a government, formed on the plan of the English constitution; and between the years 1763 and 1775, the number of inhabitants was more than doubled.

South Carolina took an early and decided part in the struggle for independence, and sent delegates to the first congress. In 1790, she adopted the present state constitution; and now sends two senators and eight representatives to congress.

GEORGIA.

Situation and Extent. GEORGIA is situated between north lat. 30 deg. 30 min. and 35 deg., and west long. 3 deg. 50 min. and 9 deg. 5 min. Its extreme length from north to south is 305 miles, and its extreme breadth 259. Its area is about 64,000 square miles, or 40,960,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—This state, like the Carolinas, is naturally divided into two districts, the upper and the lower; of which the boundary is remarkably well defined. Augusta is on this line, on the Savannah river, from whence it passes to the westward by Louisville, and, at the extremity of the state, passes the Flint river, about the latitude of 32 deg. The re-

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spective portions are so much assimilated to South Carolina, that it is unnecessary to describe them here. The state has a sea coast of 100 miles, which is indented with bays and inlets, and studded with islands, well known by the name of Sea islands. In the southern part there is a portion of Eokefanoke swamp, one of the most remarkable in the world. To the north-west are the Alleghany mountains, which terminate in this state.

The state is remarkably well supplied with rivers and small streams. Savannah river is one of the most important in America. Its head waters consist of two small rivers which rise near the mountains, and form a junction about 220 miles from the sea; from thence it runs a south-east course, and falls into the ocean 17 miles below Savannah. It receives several small streams in its progress, and is the boundary line between Georgia and South Carolina, during its whole course. It is navigable for ships of any burthen to within three miles of Savannah; for ships of 250 tons to Savannah; and for boats of 100 feet keel to Augusta. Above Augusta are the rapids, and, after passing them, the river can be navigated 80 miles higher, in small boats, to the junction of the head waters. It may be remarked that through the medium of this river a considerable part of the produce of South Carolina is carried to the Savannah market. It abounds with fish, and the water is soft and good; but the country on its banks is by no means healthy, especially in the lower part of the state.

The Ogeeche river rises a little above Greensburgh, 200 miles from Savannah, and pursuing a south-east course, falls into the Atlantic, 25 miles south of Savannah.

The Altamaha is composed of a number of branches, of which the largest is the Oconee. It rises near the mountains, about 800 miles from Savannah, and running a south-east course, is joined by the Appalachy, and thence continues its course, augmented by a great number of tributary streams, till it forms a junction with the Oakmulgee, 100 miles from the ocean: from thence it runs an east-south-east course, and falls into the Atlantic below Darien, to which it is navigable for large vessels.

The Oakmulgee is a large river rising near the Appalachy, from whence, to its confluence with the Oconee, it runs upwards of 200 miles. The Little Ogeesche is a considerable river, and falls into the Altamaha, from the northward, after this junction.

The Chatahouchy is a very large river, and forms the western boundary of Georgia from the Florida line, 125 miles up the country. It rises at the foot of the mountains, near the head of Savannah river, and runs south-westwardly, above 200 miles, to where it forms the state line. From thence it pursues a course a little east of south, to Florida, where it forms a junction with Flint river, and assumes the name of Apalachicola. From thence it runs a south by east course, 80 miles, to the gulf of Mexico, which it enters by several mouths.

Flint river is about 300 yards broad, and 12 or 15 feet deep. It rises near the Oakmulgee river, and runs, with a clear gentle current, a course to the west of south, upwards of 200 miles.

St. Mary's river rises in Eokefanoke swamp, and running about 100 miles by a very crooked course, but east upon the whole, forms the boundary between the United States and East Florida, during its whole passage, and falls into the sea at St. Mary's, where it forms a good harbour.

The soil and climate are both assimilated to South Carolina. There is a great proportion of good land in upper Georgia, and the sea islands are numerous and rich. Lower Georgia, being farther to the south, is a little warmer than South Carolina.

Population.—The number of inhabitants in Georgia in 1817 amounted to 408,567, which is nearly $6\frac{1}{2}$ persons to a square mile. In 1790, the population did not exceed 64,000 persons.

Manners, &c.—No general character will apply to the inhabitants at large. Collected from different parts of the world, as interest, necessity, or inclination led them, their character and manners must of course partake of all the varieties which distinguish the several states and kingdoms from whence they came. There is so little uniformity, that it is difficult to trace any governing principles among them. An aversion to labour

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is too predominant, owing in part to the relaxing heat of the climate, and partly to the want of necessity to excite industry. An open and friendly hospitality, particularly to strangers, is an ornamental characteristic of a great part of this people.

Their diversions are various. With some, dancing is a favourite amusement. Others take a fancied pleasure at the gaming table, which, however, frequently terminates in the ruin of their happiness, fortunes, and constitutions. In the upper counties, horse-racing and cock-fighting prevail, two cruel diversions imported from Virginia and the Carolinas, from whence those who practise them principally emigrated. But the most rational and universal amusement is hunting; and for this Georgia is particularly well calculated, as the woods abound with plenty of deer, raccoons, rabbits, wild turkeys, and other game; at the same time, the woods are so thin and free from obstructions, that you may generally ride half speed in the chase, without danger. In this amusement pleasure and profit are blended. The exercise, more than any other, contributes to health, and fits for activity in business and expertness in war; the game also affords them a palatable food, and the skins a profitable article of commerce.

Chief Towns.—*Savannah* is situated in 32 deg. 3 min. north latitude, on a high sandy bank, or bluff, on the south side of the Savannah river, 17 miles from the sea. The city is laid out on an elegant plan, and is about a mile in length from east to west, and about a quarter of a mile in breadth. It consists of 30 streets, 16 squares, and 6 lanes, containing about 1000 houses, and 5500 inhabitants; of whom about 2500 are slaves. The public buildings are, a court-house, jail, academy, bank-office, and five places for public worship. There has lately been built a very handsome exchange, with a spire and observatory, from whence vessels may be seen out at sea 10 or 12 miles. The situation of Savannah is favourable both for health and commerce. The bluff on which it is built is from 50 to 70 feet high, so that there is a fine descent to the river. This bluff is a bed of very fine sand; and by digging wells about 60 or 70 feet deep, a supply of excellent water is procured, probably a filtration from the river. The streets are broad

and airy, and the city, being only 17 miles from the sea, frequently enjoys a sea breeze, which is cool and refreshing in the summer season.

The houses are mostly built of wood, and stand separate from each other, divided by court yards, except in two or three streets, where they are close built, many of them with brick, and contain several shops and stores. One large range of brick buildings stands near the market-place, and at a distance has the appearance of an hospital. The principal street is that called the Bay, where there are several very good houses of brick and wood. Some contain booksellers', grocers', and drapers' stores; others are private dwellings. This range of buildings extends nearly three quarters of a mile along the town; and opposite to it is a beautiful walk or mall, planted with a double row of trees, the same as those at Charleston. This agreeable promenade is situated near the margin of the height or bluff upon which the town stands; and the merchants' stores, warehouses, and wharfs, for landing, housing, and shipping of goods, are built immediately below, along the shore, forming in some degree a sort of lower town. From the height there is a fine commanding view of the Savannah river as far as the sea, and for several miles above the town. About the centre of the walk, and just on the verge of the cliff, stands the exchange, a large brick building, which contains some public offices; and an assembly room, where a concert and ball are held once a fortnight during the winter.

Augusta is situated on a handsome plain, on the south side of Savannah river, 127 miles from Savannah, and contains about 2400 inhabitants, of whom above one half are slaves. The public buildings are, two churches, an academy, a court-house, jail, a market-house, and several public warehouses. The town is at the head of large boat navigation, and carries on a very extensive and profitable trade, both with Savannah and the back country. Many of the merchants are wealthy, and import their goods; and the greater part of the others purchase in New York. The town was originally settled by emigrants from Scotland: but the society is now very mixed, and probably those of Irish extraction are the most numerous.

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The inhabitants are in general well-informed, and have a considerable taste for literature. They are affable in their deportment, and polite and hospitable to strangers.

The country round Augusta is agreeably diversified, and well cultivated. The whole plain on which Augusta stands is remarkably fertile; and towards the south-west, the country rises into considerable hills, interspersed with fertile plains, remarkably favourable for the culture of cotton; and the cotton plantations are in a very thriving state. This is reckoned the boundary between the high and low country. The falls in the river are three miles above Augusta, and immediately on leaving the town for the westward, the great contrast between this and the low country is seen: in place of swamps, marshes, and sandy deserts, the senses are gratified by high rising grounds, rich verdure in the woods, and clear streams of water. The river is here 500 yards broad, and very deep.

Besides Savannah and Augusta, there is, on the Savannah river, a little town called *Petersburg*; and in the interior, between the Savannah and Ogeeche, is *Washington*. Both these are thriving places. On the great Ogeeche, there are, besides Louisville, *Sparta* and *Greensburg*. On the Altamaha and its waters, *Darien*, a new seaport, MILLEDGEVILLE, the new seat of government, and *Athens*, the seat of a college. On St. Mary's river is the town of *St. Mary's*, at the southern extremity of the state.

Trade and Resources.—The valuation of the property of the state of Georgia, subject to the direct tax, amounts to 57,746,771 dollars, 16 cents, of which considerably more than one half is raised on the valuation of slaves.

The exports in 1810, were 2,424,631. The chief articles of export are live stock, maize, rice, tobacco, indigo, flour, sago, tar, naval stores, canes, leather, deer skins, snake root, myrtle, and bees wax.

The imports consist of foreign merchandise, brought directly from France and England; and also from New York and Philadelphia. The New England states furnish butter, cheese, fish, potatoes, onions, apples, cyder, shoes, and New England rum. Between St. Mary's and the neighbouring island of

Amelia, an active smuggling trade was carried on during the late war. English merchandise was landed there, and afterwards sold as Spanish to the Americans.

Education.—A great degree of attention has been paid in Georgia to education; and very considerable funds have been appropriated to the support of it. The college at Athens is amply endowed, and provision is made for establishing and keeping up an academy in every county in the state. In the towns, there are very good common schools; but the state is yet defective as to the establishment of these most useful seminaries throughout the country. It should be mentioned, however, that in this, and all the southern states, the population is too thin to admit of the establishment of schools upon the plan of the townships of the northern states. By looking at the census, it will be seen, that in this state, for example, a township of six miles square, or 36 square miles, only contains about 112 persons; from which if we deduct the proportion of black people, it leaves only 75; and this number would not be sufficient to support a school. On the other hand, there is much waste land, and those districts that are settled up, often contain much more than this proportion; sometimes, indeed, a sufficient number for the purpose mentioned.

The constitution declares, that 'arts and sciences shall be promoted, in one or more seminaries of learning; and the legislature shall give such further donations and privileges to those already established, as may be necessary to secure the objects of their institution.'

Religion.—On the subject of religion, it is declared, that 'no person within the state shall, upon any pretence, be deprived of the inestimable privilege of worshipping God in a manner agreeable to his own conscience, nor be compelled to attend any place of worship, contrary to his own faith and judgment; nor shall he ever be obliged to pay tithes, taxes, or any other rates, for the building or repairing any place of worship, or for the maintenance of any minister or ministry, contrary to what he believes to be right, or hath engaged to do. No religious society shall ever be established in this state in preference to any other: nor shall any person be denied the

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Government.—The state is divided into 24 counties, and these compose two judiciary districts. The civil government is vested in an assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives, a governor, and a judiciary. The assembly are elected annually, and all free white persons, who are of age, and who have paid taxes, have a vote. The governor is appointed for two years by the legislature. The judges are elected by the legislature for three years.

History.—The settlement of a colony between the rivers Savannah and Altamaha, was meditated in England in 1732, for the accommodation of poor people in Great Britain and Ireland, and for the further security of Carolina. Private compassion and public spirit conspired to promote the benevolent design.—Humane and opulent men suggested a plan of transporting a number of indigent families to this part of America, free of expence. For this purpose they applied to the king, George II. and obtained from him letters patent, bearing date June 9th, 1732, for legally carrying into execution what they had generously projected. They called the new province Georgia, in honour of the king, who encouraged the plan. A corporation, consisting of 21 persons, was constituted by the name of the trustees, for settling and establishing the colony of Georgia, which was separated from Carolina by the river Savannah.—The trustees having first set an example themselves, by largely contributing to the scheme, undertook also to solicit benefactions from others, and to apply the money towards clothing, arming, purchasing utensils for cultivation, and transporting such poor people as should consent to go over and begin a settlement. They did not confine their charitable views to the subjects of Britain alone, but wisely opened a door for the indigent and oppressed protestants of other nations. To prevent a misapplication of the money, it was deposited in the bank of England.

The trustees for Georgia granted land as a military fief, and established such regulations as proved most pernicious to the growth and prosperity of the colony. Besides the large

sums expended for its settlement by these gentlemen, 36,000*l.* was granted by parliament for the same purpose. A number of Scotch and German labourers were sent over; but all the hopes of the corporation were vain. Their injudicious regulations and restrictions—the wars in which they were involved with the Spaniards and Indians—and the frequent insurrections among themselves, threw the colony into a state of confusion and wretchedness too great for human nature long to endure. Their oppressed situation was represented to the trustees by repeated complaints; till at length, finding that the province languished under their care, and weary with the complaints of the people, they, in the year 1752, surrendered their charter to the king, and it was made a royal government. Great had been the expence which the mother country had already incurred, besides private benefactions, for supporting this colony; and small have been the returns yet made by it. The vestiges of cultivation was scarcely perceptible in the forests, and in England all commerce with it was neglected and despised. At this time the whole annual exports of Georgia did not amount to 10,000*l.* sterling.

In the year 1740, the Rev. George Whitefield founded an orphan house academy in Georgia, about 12 miles from Savannah.—For the support of this, in his itinerations, he collected large sums of money of all denominations of Christians, both in England and America. He afterwards made his assignment of the orphan-house in trust to the countess of Huntingdon. Soon after his death a charter was granted to his institution in Georgia, and the Rev. Mr. Percy was appointed president of the college. Mr. Percy accordingly came over to execute his office, but, unfortunately, on the 30th of May, 1775, the orphan-house building caught fire, and was entirely consumed, except the two wings.

From the time Georgia became a royal government, in 1752, till the peace of Paris, in 1763, she struggled under many difficulties, arising from the want of credit, friends, and the frequent molestations of enemies. The good effects of the peace were sensibly felt in the province of Georgia. From this time it began to flourish, under the fatherly care of governor Wright.

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During the late war, Georgia was over-run by the British troops, and the inhabitants were obliged to flee into the neighbouring states for safety. The sufferings and losses of her citizens were as great, in proportion to their numbers and wealth, as in any of the states. Since the peace, the progress of the population of this state has been astonishingly rapid. Its growth in improvement and population has been checked by the hostile irruptions of the Creek Indians.

THE FLORIDAS.

THE Floridas has now become a province of the United States; and must prove an invaluable acquisition, whether we consider the cession in a natural, or political point of view. It has been effected by a master-piece of policy, and must cause some agitations in many of the European courts. The American government dispatched agents to visit the states in South America, which were shaking off the Spanish yoke, and lest this should be a precursor to the acknowledgment of their independence, Spain agreed to surrender the Floridas. This event was also no doubt accelerated by a party of the American army, by way of employing themselves, seizing upon the key of this country, which shewed, that whenever the order was issued, its conquest could be easily effected. What makes this bargain more valuable to the States, is, that the purchase-money is to be paid by the government to its own citizens for past injuries received from Spain.

What the consequence of this immense addition of empire and sea-coast may be, it would not be difficult to conjecture. Commanding the gulf of Mexico, and brought now into the neighbourhood of the West India islands, and with a powerful and growing navy, these colonies would fall within the grasp

of America, or be revolutionized at the beginning of the very first war that may commence between the two countries. At least, the soil and climate of the Floridas are so excellently situated for the growth of West India produce, that the enterprising citizens of the United States will soon become powerful competitors with the English planter in the markets of Europe.

Florida is bounded on the north by Georgia, on the east by the Atlantic, on the south by the gulf of Mexico, and on the west by the Mississippi. East Florida extends much further south than West Florida; the gulf of Mexico washing the western coast from 25 to 30 deg. north lat.; whereas the most southern part of West Florida is in north lat. 29 deg. 30 min. The form of East Florida is triangular, the base towards the north being 160 miles in breadth from east to west, near the southern extremity about 40, and about 350 from north to south. Along the coasts the bays of small islands are numerous. The soil near the sea coast is sandy and barren, but further inland it improves. The productions are chiefly rice and indigo. West Florida is about 320 miles from east to west, and from 40 to 80 in width from north to south; on the west it is bounded by the river Mississippi, and on the east by Appalachicola. The country is pleasant, and the soil is exceedingly fertile, so that the inhabitants have sometimes two or three harvests of maize in the same year. Towards the coast it is flat, but rises gradually into hills, which are covered with verdure and large trees, such as white and red oak, mulberry, magnolia, pine, hickory, cypress, red and white cedar, &c. Orange and lemon trees grow here without cultivation, and produce better fruit than in Spain and Portugal. They have also vines, which yield grapes equal in size and flavour to the best muscadine; and they have abundance of other fruits of excellent flavour. The cabbage tree furnishes a food that is pleasant and wholesome. Cotton is produced in great plenty; as well as flax and hemp. Among the richer productions of the country we may reckon cochineal and indigo. The coasts furnish oysters and amber. The rivers abound in fish, but are molested by alligators. In the western parts are numerous herds of cattle and flocks of sheep: hogs also, whose

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flesh acquires an excellent flavour from the acorns and chestnuts on which they feed, are numerous. In the forests and deserts are found several species of wild beasts, and also a variety of birds. In summer the air is very hot, but in several places it is pure and wholesome; the winter is commonly temperate, though the cold sometimes destroys the orange trees. The rivers are covered with ice.

The principal town in West Florida is Pensacola, and in East Florida St Augustine. The population of West Florida is very inconsiderable; Mobile and Pensacola together not containing above 1500 souls. The interior of East Florida is little known, and only inhabited by a few Creeks or Seminoles. —The town of St. Augustine in East Florida is less healthy than some have supposed it to be; but the climate, and also the general appearance of the country, would be much improved, if industry and labour were bestowed upon it, and the inland marches properly drained.

This country is said to been discovered by Sebastian Cabot in the year 1496, 18 years before it was known to the Spaniards; but received its name from John Ponce, who, sailing from Porto Rico in 1513, landed here in April, when the country appeared in full verdure and bloom. Florida has frequently changed its master; in 1564, the French took possession of some part of it, but they were driven from their settlements in the following year by the Spaniards, who then began to form establishments for themselves. In the year 1763 Florida was ceded to Great Britain in exchange for the Havannah, which had been taken from the Spaniards. Whilst the English were in the possession of it they divided it into two governments, viz. East and West Florida, separated by the Appalachicola. During the American war, both the Floridas were reduced by the Spaniards, and guaranteed to the crown of Spain by the definitive treaty of 1783.

This country has now added more splendour to the star spangled banner of the United States.

TENNESSEE.

Situation and Extent. **THE** state of Tennessee is situated between 35 deg. and 36 deg. 30 min. of north lat. and 4 deg. 26 min. and 18 deg. 9 min. west long. from Washington. It is bounded on the north by the states of Kentucky and Virginia; south by the states of Mississippi and Georgia, and the Alabama territory; east by North Carolina, and west by the river Mississippi. The boundary line on the south side is the parallel of 35, on the north side the parallel of 36, 30, and on the east the Alleghany mountains, which separate the state from North Carolina. Its length from east to west is 445 miles, and its breadth from north to south 104. Area 63,000 square miles, or 40,320,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—The state of Tennessee is marked by bold features. It is washed by the Mississippi on the west, and the fine rivers Tennessee and Cumberland, pass through it by very serpentine courses. The western part is mostly level, the middle, like Kentucky, hilly but not mountainous; the eastern part, known by the name of East Tennessee, is wholly among the mountains. These mountains are a continuation of the ridges which pass through the northern states, and are said to be very beautiful; the country among them forming the most delightful residence of any in the state, in consequence of which it is rapidly settling. Besides the principal rivers already alluded to, there are a great number of lesser rivers and small streams, but they are all tributary to the Tennessee and Cumberland, except a few of no great length that run into the Mississippi. None of the waters of this state run to the eastward, but the head waters of the Tennessee interlock with the rivers of Georgia, which determines the boundary between those states and North Carolina to be the highest land in this part of the United States.

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Iron ore is found in abundance in this state, and a considerable part of the country is, like Kentucky, bedded on limestone. Copperas, alum, nitre, lead, and some silver have been found; and pit-coal is supposed to be plenty through the state, but, owing to the quantity of wood, it is not much sought for. Saltpetre is an article of commerce, and there are several salt-springs which supply the state with that necessary article. Some other mineral springs have been discovered.

The soil is different in different parts of the country. In East Tennessee the land is good along the banks of the river, and in the valleys; the mountains are poor in soil, but they afford good pasture for sheep and cattle. In the middle part, the soil is pretty similar to that in Kentucky, and the low lands in the western parts are composed of a rich black vegetable earth.

The climate in East Tennessee, among the mountains is delightful. The heats of summer are so tempered by the mountain air, that in point of climate this is among the most desirable residences in all the United States. The middle part has a climate very similar to Kentucky, but, being farther to the south, it is warmer, and more congenial to the culture of cotton, and other articles raised in the southern states. The western part being low, the air in summer is hot and moist, and the people are a good deal subject to fever and ague, and bilious fever, during the fall.

Population.—In the year 1817, the number of inhabitants in this state amounted to 489,624, which is above 7½ persons to a square mile. Amongst these there are about 50,000 slaves.

Manners, &c.—The population of this state, consisting chiefly of emigrants from the Carolinas, Virginia, and Georgia; from the New England states and Europe, has scarcely any uniform character. They are said to be somewhat rough in their manners, but high-spirited and hospitable. A taste for reading prevails among many of them; and besides the Bible and newspapers, Salmagundy, the Olive Branch, and the History of the Late War, are works in great request. They cherish in their hearts a love of liberty, and a strong

attachment to their country. They are all good horsemen, and expert at the rifle. Their stockings, clothes, and bedding, and even their candles and shoes, are generally of domestic manufacture. Gaming is not so common as it was, since the law was passed, disqualifying persons convicted of practising it from holding any civil or military office for five years, and fining him in fifty dollars besides. Licensed tavern-keepers take an oath not to permit gaming in their houses. The practice of duelling has ceased, since the act passed against it by the assembly, subjecting the parties to outlawry.

Chief Towns.—The principal towns are *Knoxville*, in East Tennessee, and *Nashville*, in West Tennessee. Knoxville is the seat of government, and contains about 1000 inhabitants. Nashville is situated on the Cumberland river, and is a place of considerable commerce particularly in dry goods, groceries, and cotton. There are a considerable number of smaller towns, but they are of no great importance.

Trade and Resources.—The value of houses and lands in this state in 1815, was estimated at 34,415,971 dollars, and the gross value of manufactures in the preceding year was stated at 4,000,000 of dollars.

The *exports* consist of cotton, tobacco, hemp, horses, live cattle, Indian corn, pork, fowls, potatoes, flour, saltpetre, flax, deer skins, ginseng, lumber, iron. The great staple productions are saltpetre, tobacco, cotton, hogs, and cattle. The *imports* consist chiefly of dry goods and groceries imported in waggons to East Tennessee from Philadelphia and Baltimore, and to West Tennessee by land to Pittsburgh, and thence down the Ohio and up the Cumberland river. Orleans sugar, and some articles of groceries, are imported thence by the Mississippi: the freight was 5½ dollars per hundred weight by common boats, but is probably reduced since steam-boats were established. Nashville, situated on the south side of the Cumberland river, 190 miles from its mouth, with a population of 800 inhabitants, has 27 mercantile stores. The great channel of trade is the Mississippi, and New Orleans the place of deposit. Other channels of shorter communication with the Mobile tide water have been projected; between the Hudasse

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and Coossee rivers for the country of East Tennessee, and between, the Occachappo and Tombeckby for West Tennessee.

Education.—There are four incorporated colleges, three of which in East Tennessee were incorporated by the territorial government, and a donation of 100,000 acres of land was granted by congress for their support.

Religion.—The religious denominations in this state are presbyterians, baptists, Roman catholics, protestants, episcopalian, and methodists. According to the report of the general convention of baptists, held at Philadelphia, in May 1817, the number of their churches in Tennessee was 169, of members 9704.

Government.—This state is divided into East and West Tennessee. East Tennessee is only one fourth part of the state, and is subdivided into 17 counties. West Tennessee is subdivided into 21 counties.

The constitution of this state declares, that all power is inherent in the people—that all men have a right to worship God according to the dictates of their consciences, and that no preference shall ever be given by law to any religious establishment—that elections shall be free and equal;—and that the trial by jury shall remain inviolate.

The government is legislative, executive, and judicial.—The legislature consist of representatives and senators, who are chosen for two years, and must be possessed of 200 acres of land in the county for which they are chosen. The governor must be possessed of 500 acres of land, and is also elected for two years. All free males of 21 years of age, who pay taxes, have a vote. The judiciary is vested in such superior and inferior courts as the legislature may appoint; the judges are appointed by the legislature, and hold their offices during good behaviour.

History.—This country, which formed a part of Carolina, according to the second charter of Charles II. was inhabited by the Cherokee Indians, by whom the first colonists, consisting of above 60 families, in the year 1754, were nearly destroyed. Their settlements were not renewed till 1774, when the Indians, refusing to join the British standard, were at-

tacked and driven towards the Kenhawa. The country then belonged to North Carolina, and delegates, in 1776, were sent from this district to the convention held for the purpose of forming a state constitution. In 1789 it was ceded by Carolina to the United States, and in 1796 was received into the federal union, and a constitution formed and ratified by the free inhabitants.

LOUISIANA.

Situation and Extent. **THIS** is an immense territory, bounded by the Mississippi on the east; by the Spanish possessions on the west; by Orleans territory and the gulf of Mexico on the south, and on the north by the British possessions. It extends from the gulf of Mexico, in lat. 28 deg. to 48 deg. north, and from west long. 12 deg. 50 min. to 35 deg.; being 1494 miles long, from north to south, and, though the western boundary has not been clearly ascertained, the breadth may be assumed at 886 miles. Its area may be computed at nearly 985,250 square miles; but *the state of Louisiana proper* contains only 49,000 square miles.

The following estimate was made in 1814, the state being divided into three great sections: 1. The north-west section, including Red river and the Washita country, of 21,649 square miles, 12,700 inhabitants; 2. The south-west, including those of Opelousas and Atakapas, 12,100 square miles, 13,800; 3. The south-east, including New Orleans and West Florida, 12,120, 75,200. In all, 101,700.

Natural Geography.—In such an amazing extent of territory the face of the country must be exceedingly diversified. Towards the south the land is low, and in many places overflowed by rivers. To the north it becomes elevated, in many

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places swelling out into large hills; and towards the west there are very lofty mountains.

The rivers are numerous and extensive, and form a remarkable feature in the geography of this country. The Mississippi washes it on the east, including its windings, upwards of 2000 miles, and it has in the interior some of the finest rivers in the world.

The principal river is the Missouri, which, indeed, is the largest branch of the Mississippi. The sources of this river are still unknown, although one of its branches was navigated by Lewis and Clarke 3090 miles, where it is inclosed by very lofty mountains. Below this 242 miles, there is a confluence of three different branches of the head waters, in lat. 45 deg. 33 min.; from thence the river appears to bend considerably to the north-ward, the great falls being in lat. 47 deg. 3 min., distant from the mouth of the river 2575 miles. These falls are 18 miles long, and in that distance descend 362 feet. The first great pitch is 98 feet, the second 19, the third 48, the fourth 26, and other pitches and rapids make up the quantity above mentioned. In lat. 47 deg. 24 min., the river forms a junction with another nearly as large, and it is here 372 yards broad. In lat. 47 deg., 2270 miles from its outlet, it is clear and beautiful, and 300 yards wide. At 1888 miles from its outlet it is 527 yards wide, its current deep, rapid, and full of sand bars. At 1610 miles a fort has been erected, called fort Mandan. in lat. 47 deg. 21 min.; and here the winters are represented as being very cold. From thence to the mouth the navigation is very good, the current being deep and rapid, and the water muddy. Its breadth is various, from 300 to 800 yards; and at the outlet in 38 deg. 45 min. it is about 700 yards broad. In its progress it is augmented by a vast number of streams, the principal of which are Yellow Stone, Little Missouri, Platt, Kansas, and Osage.

The Moin, a very considerable river, falls into the Mississippi about 200 miles above the Missouri, and below the falls of St. Anthony, in lat. 45 deg., St. Peter's river, a very large stream, falls into the Mississippi.

St. Francis rises near St. Louis, and running nearly a south course, upwards of 350 miles, falls into the Mississippi, in lat. 44 deg. 45. min., by a channel 300 yards broad. It is said to be navigable 300 miles.

Arkansas is a very large river, rising in Mexico, and running a south-east course, falls into the Mississippi, in lat. 33 deg. 45 min.; being navigable 300 or 400 miles.

Red river, and Black river, are two very large streams, rising between the lat. of 35 and 36 deg., about 100 miles apart; and running nearly 600 miles, they form a junction about 23 miles from the Mississippi, which they enter in lat. 31 deg. 5 min., 1014 miles below the Missouri.

There are a great number of rivers to the westward, falling into the gulf of Mexico; but owing to the country being little known, they do not seem to have excited much interest. One of the principal is the Sabine, the western boundary of the Orleans territory.

The territory is said to abound in valuable minerals, of every description: but the branch that seems to have excited greatest attention is the lead mines, near St. Genevieve, which yield annually a vast quantity of that useful commodity.

The soil and climate of Louisiana are said to be similar in every respect to that of the countries lying parallel to it east of the Mississippi. Near that river the soil is rich, and the climate temperate; but it becomes more cold to the westward, and towards the mountains the cold is represented as being very severe; the soil being sterile, and the brooks in many places strongly impregnated with salt.

The climate of this country varies in different parts. From the sea to point Coupée it seldom snows, nor does it ever freeze, except in the months of December and January and when the wind is from the north or north-west. It appears to be well ascertained, that there is here less heat and more moisture than in similar latitudes on the eastern continent, and the climate is generally very mild. In winter the thermometer seldom falls more than two degrees below the freezing point. In July there are heavy rains and thunder, and the heat is

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then at its maximum; but it continues without much diminution till the close of September, the thermometer ranging between 80 deg. and 87 deg., and sometimes rising above 90 deg. The most unhealthy months are August and September, when the miasma exhaled from decaying animal and vegetable matters are most abundant, and most injurious to the human frame. At this season bilious disorders prevail, especially in new settlements. A more familiar idea of the climate of this country may be derived from the developement of its vegetable productions. About the 1st of February peach and plum trees, peas, and strawberries, are in blossom. About the 1st of March, the trees generally are in leaf, or in blossom. Peas are ripe towards the middle of June, and the earlier fruit before the close of July. Spring regularly commences with southern breezes, the warmth of which is so favourable to vegetation, that it is here more advanced in April than in May, in the northern states. *Hurricanes* were experienced in 1780 and 1794, in the month of August. The wind blew with violence during twelve hours, and so retarded the current of the Mississippi, that it overflowed its banks, and inundated the country from two to ten feet, as high as the *English turn*. These storms were accompanied with thunder, and with hailstones of uncommon size. In 1802 the engineer who directed the works of fort Plaquemine, situated at the distance of twelve or thirteen leagues from the sea, was drowned in his cabin, by a sudden rising of the waters. The workmen and garrison found refuge in the most elevated part of the fort, where there was from two to three feet water.

Population.—In the year 1712 the colony of Louisiana consisted of 400 whites and 20 negro slaves. In 1817 the population was estimated at 108,923, which is not much above two persons to a square mile.

Manners, &c.—The character of the people in this country will be given in our description of the capital, New Orleans. They are gay and lively, and their manners are pretty much assimilated to those of the French. But the brutalizing effects of slavery tend to corrupt the morals of all classes.

Chief Towns.—*New Orleans* is situated in lat. 29 deg. 57 min., and it is regularly laid out, the streets crossing one another at right angles; but they are narrow, being generally not more than 40 feet in breadth. The houses in the principal streets are built of brick, but the others mostly of wood. The middle of the streets are unpaved, and, in wet weather, are very muddy; but the town is well supplied with good side pavements. The city extends nearly a mile along the river, and is about half a mile broad. There is a square in the centre, which is covered with grass, and contains the cathedral and town-house. There is a market-house of considerable extent, and it is well supplied with vegetables, but the meat and fish are said to be poor.

The city lies below the surface of the river, on which there is an embankment, called a *levée* to defend it and the adjacent country from being overflowed. This *levée*, is of great extent, running more than 130 miles up the country, and on the top of it there is an excellent dry road. A plan has lately been agreed upon for supplying the city with water from the *Mississippi*, which will add much to the comfort and health of the inhabitants.

A winter residence in this city is said to be very pleasant; but it is generally sickly in summer, and many of the people leave it for two or three months. As it is, however, the great mart for receiving the commodities which are shipped from the *Mississippi* river, it will always continue to be a place of great trade, and will increase, probably, to a greater extent than any sea-port in America.

Except in domestic manufactures, which do not appear to be carried on to a great extent, there are no material manufactures here, and in all probability the trade of this place will continue for a long time to be an object of solicitude to the manufacturing districts; particularly *Pittsburg*, and *Lexington*, in *Kentucky*; and on the other hand, from the increase of cotton and sugar, a great trade will always be supported between *New Orleans* and the cities on the *Atlantic*. The direct exports of 1810 amounted to 1,897,522 dollars; but it is to be observed, that the greatest part of the exports are by

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'The French language,' says a recent traveller, 'is still predominant in New Orleans. The population is said to be 30,000; two-thirds of which do not speak English. The appearance of the people too was French, and even the negroes evinced, by their antics, in rather a ludicrous manner, their connection with the natives of that nation.'

'The general manners and habits are very relaxed. The first day of my residence here was Sunday, and I was not a little surprised to find in the United States the markets, shops, theatre, circus, and public ball-rooms open. Gambling-houses *throng* the city: all coffee-houses, together with the exchange, are occupied from morning until night by gamblers. It is said, that when the Kentuckians arrive at this place, they are in their glory, finding neither limit to, nor punishment of their excesses. The general style of living is luxurious. Houses are elegantly furnished. The ball-room, at Davis's hotel, I have never seen exceeded in splendour. Private dwellings partake of the same character; and the ladies dress with expensive elegance. The sources of public amusement are numerous and varied.

'I visited the theatre: it is an old building, about two-thirds the size of the little theatre in the Haymarket. The play was *John of Calais*, well performed by a French company to a French audience. At a tavern opposite I witnessed a personal conflict, in which I suppose one of the parties was *dirk'd*. These things are of every-day occurrence; and it is not often that they are taken cognizance of by the police.

'I was present at a criminal trial: the pleadings were a mixture of French and English. The jury consisted of ten French, and two Americans. The counsel were equally divided, being two of each language: the judge was American. The French counsel requested leave to quote the code Napoleon, which was granted, on condition that he should explain to the French part of the jury that it was not law, and that he adduced it on the same principle that he would the works of a poet, merely to illustrate his ideas. The

English law is the law of Louisiana, with such additions as local circumstances have rendered necessary; one of which that was cited upon this occasion, is a law against biting off the ear, the nose, tearing out the eyes, &c.

Provisions are of very bad quality, and most enormously dear. Hams and cheese from England, potatoes, butter, and beef from Ireland, are common articles of import. Cabbages are now ten-pence per head; turkeys, three to five dollars each. Rents are also very extravagant. Yet to all men whose desire only is to be rich, and to live a short life but a merry one, I have no hesitation in recommending New Orleans.

In 1808, the professions and trades at New Orleans were as follows; merchants, 60; printers, 7; innkeepers, 9; professors, 6; apothecaries, 5; lawyers, 24; physicians and surgeons, 18; dentists, 2.

The inhabitants of this city are sensible of the advantages resulting from their connection with the United States, and though composed of men of every country in Europe, they are united by the strongest zeal in support of the government. Free trade is found to be far more advantageous than monopoly; trial by jury is acknowledged to be preferable to military law; and elective authority far more desirable than the absolute rule of a military commander. In the course of a very few years, the population of the city of New Orleans has increased from 10,000 to 30,000; and many of the proprietors who were in a state of indigence under the dominion of Spain, have risen to sudden wealth by the rise on the value of land, which followed the change of government. Among the new buildings are a legislative hall, a hall of justice, and an office of insurance. Two banks and an inland navigation company have been established; and what is still of greater importance, a college or seminary of learning. There are five weekly newspapers; the *Courier*, and the *Ami des Lois*, in French, and the *Louisiana Gazette*, the *Orleans Gazette*, and a *Price Current*, or *Commercial Register*, in English.

This city enjoys the most advantageous situation of any place upon the face of the earth, and as it must become the grand emporium of all the interior regions of North America,

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it will probably surpass the most flourishing city in ancient times and dispute the palm of eminence with the proudest capital in Europe. The English ministry in their late bold, though unsuccessful attempt to seize upon this place, seemed to acknowledge its vast importance.

Trade and Resources.—The surplus productions of an immense country watered by the Ohio, Missouri, Red river, and other great branches of the Mississippi, will naturally descend to New Orleans, and be thence transported to Mexico or the West Indies. Besides, there will be a constant exchange of commodities with the more northern states. In 1804, the exports from New Orleans amounted to 1,600,308 dollars. The quantity of sugar imported into the United States, in 1802, from Louisiana and the Floridas, amounted to 1,576,988 pounds. In 1809, the exports were, cotton, 3500 bales; sugar, 12,000 barrels; tobacco, 5000; flour, 250,000.

The exports of this state, says the author of the *Western Gazetteer*, already exceed those of all the New England states, by more than 150,000 dollars a-year. Between 300 and 400 sea vessels arrive and depart annually; 987 vessels of all denominations departed during the year 1816, from the Bayou St. John, a port of delivery in the district of Mississippi. The tonnage of these vessels is calculated at 16,000 tons; they are chiefly employed in carrying the produce of that part of the Floridas belonging to the United States, consisting of barks, coals, cotton, corn, furs, hides, pitch, planks, rosin, skins, tar, timber, turpentine, sand, shells, lime, &c. The produce received at this city from the upper country is immense, 594 flat-bottomed boats, and 300 barges, have arrived within the last year from the western states and territories. The quantity of sugar made on the Mississippi alone, is estimated by a late writer at 10,000,000 of pounds; 20,000 bales of cotton were exported in 1812.

Religion.—The clergy, before the late cession of Louisiana, consisted of a non-resident bishop, who had 4000 dollars a-year, from the revenue of certain bishoprics in Mexico and the isle of Cuba; of two canons, with a revenue each of 600 dollars;

and of 25 cures, of which five were for New Orleans, and 80 for the different parishes of the provinces, having each from 360 to 480 dollars a-year. All these disbursements, except the pay of the bishop, and the expences of the chapel, were paid by the treasury of New Orleans, and amounted annually to the sum of 18,000 dollars. The convent of Ursulines, established in 1787, by the Company of the West, for the education of female orphans, contained, a few years ago, 23 nuns. The establishment is under the direction of 18 *religious*. In the same building, a public school has been established for the instruction of day-scholars, at a dollar a-year, of whom the number, at the above period, was 80.

Government.—The territory of Louisiana, as ceded to the United States, has been divided into two territorial governments, Upper and Lower Louisiana. It is the latter which we are now treating upon, and which is also called the Orleans Territory. It is divided into 12 counties.

In January 1812, a convention of the representatives of the people met at New Orleans, and framed and signed a constitution, which was afterwards approved by the congress of the United States. This constitution resembles those of the other states of the Union, though more precautions seem to have been taken against corruption and abuse of power. The legislative authority is vested in a house of representatives and a senate. The electors consist of every free white male citizen, who has attained the age of 21 years, who has resided in the county in which he votes one year next preceding the election, and who has paid state tax the last six months prior thereto.

The judicial power is vested in a supreme court and inferior court. The jurisdiction of the former extends to all civil cases, when the matter in dispute exceeds the sum of 300 dollars. The judges of both hold their office during good behaviour. The supreme court consists of not less than three, nor of more than five judges, the majority forming a quorum. The salary of each is fixed at 5000 dollars. The state is divided into two districts of appellate jurisdiction, the eastern and western.

History.—The existence of the Mississippi was first made known to the French colonists in Canada, by the Indians,

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about 1680. In the year 1680, De la Salle, in hopes of finding an easy route to the Southern ocean, by this great river, passed down the Illinois, and descended with some of his party to the Mexican gulf; while father Hennepin, a Franciscan friar, Ducan, and others, ascended 800 leagues to the falls of St. Anthony, by the Ohio. The former took possession of the country in the name of the king; and returning to Montreal, he proceeded to France to solicit his permission to enter the Mississippi by sea. Encouraged in this enterprise, he sailed for the gulf of Mexico, but, owing to the low situation of the coast and strength of the current, he was carried considerably to the west of this river, and disembarked at the mouth of the Guadaloupe, in the bay of St. Bernard, in the year 1684. He planted the French standard on the river Colorado, or the Aux Canes, and shortly after fell a victim to the perfidy of his men; but some of his companions returned to Canada.

In the year 1696 the Spaniards, jealous of the discoveries of the French, established Pensacola, to the east of the river Perdido. The first who entered the Mississippi by sea was Le Moine d'Hibberville, a Canadian naval officer of great reputation, who, in 1699, laid the foundation of the first colony at Biloxi. In order to people the country there were sent from France a number of young women, and soldiers who had been labourers; who received cattle and grants of land, and were provided with cattle, poultry, and grain. The colony was transferred in 1702 from Biloxi to the isle of Dauphin, but did not prosper. In 1708 new colonists were sent from France under the direction of the commissary D'Artagnette, and two years afterwards isle Dauphin was plundered by the English. Several different settlements were afterwards formed in these vast regions; and in 1718, New Orleans, which previously consisted of a few hovels was extended under the direction of De la Tour. For some time, French criminals and women of bad fame were imported; but this practice was soon discontinued. At length the impolitic expulsion of the Jews, and the hostility of the Indians caused a dissolution of the company who claimed this colony.

In 1763, the cabinet of Versailles, fearing that the loss of her northern possessions in Canada would bring about that of the country of Louisiana, the colony, by a secret treaty, was ceded to Spain, as an indemnity for expences inturred during the war; and at the same time, the Floridas were made over to England. In 1764, Don Antonio de Ulloa arrived at New Orleans in quality of Spanish governor, with a detachment of troops; and finding that the inhabitants were strongly inclined to remain under the French domination, and that the expences of the government would far exceed the amount of revenue, he wrote to his court against the cession, and remained two years in the country without taking possession of it in a formal manner.

In the year 1769, O'Reilly, in quality of governor and intendant general, arrived with 4500 regular troops, a good train of artillery, stores, and ammunition, with which he drove away all the English protestants and Jews, prohibited all commerce except with Spain and her islands, and established a court martial for the trial of the French officers who remained, five of whom were shot, and seven sent to confinement for ten years in the Moro castle at the Havannah. This conduct inspired a general indignation against him, and the colony was happily delivered from his violence by his removal in 1770. In 1780, the English fort of Mobile surrendered to the Spanish governor, which led to the reduction of Pensacola, in consequence of which, West Florida fell into the hands of Spain. In 1795, a treaty was entered into between the United States and Spain, by which a line of boundary was agreed to, and the free navigation of the river secured. In 1798, all the Spanish posts to the north of the 31st degree were evacuated; and the year following, the line of demarcation between Spain and the United States was settled by commissioners. Notwithstanding these treaties, Spanish privateers and ships of war committed spoliations on the commerce of the United States; and the free navigation of the Mississippi, and the right of deposit at New Orleans, was refused. This induced the president of the United States to prepare a force on the river Ohio to act against this colony, which, however, from a

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change of political circumstances, was disbanded in 1800. The year following, Mr. Jefferson, who was called to the presidency, demanded from Spain the execution of the treaty; and she, unwilling to comply, and fearing a rupture, sold the colony to the French republic, on the 21st of March, 1801. The French expedition, prepared in the ports of Holland for the purpose of taking possession of this country, was prevented from sailing by an English squadron; and the French government sold it on the 8d of April, 1803, to the United States, for the sum of 60,000,000 of francs, in which sum was to be included the amount of debts due by France to the citizens of the United States.

Upper Louisiana.

This territory in agriculture and produce does not vary from the neighbouring countries. It is divided into the following districts: St. Charles, St. Louis, St. Genevieve, Cape Gerardeau, New Madrid, Hopefield, and St. Francis, and the settlements on the Arkansas.

The territory of Orleans being more favourably situated for trade, and a disposal of their produce, this territory has as yet made no very rapid progress in improvements. The chief settlements are near the Missouri, and along the Mississippi to New Madrid; with some on the Arkansas and St. Francis.

St. Louis is the capital, and contains 1500 inhabitants. It is situated on the Mississippi, in lat. 38 deg. 38 min., in a fine healthy country, on a bed of limestone, having rich settlements around it. It is increasing in population and wealth; and several manufactories have been recently established.

St. Charles, a handsome village, is situated on the left bank of the Missouri, 18 miles from St. Louis, by an excellent road, leading through a rich country. In 1807, it contained 500 inhabitants, chiefly French; but many Americans have lately settled in it. *St. Genevieve* contains about 1200 inhabitants, and is increasing in population and wealth; having about 20 stores, and being the deposite of the produce of the lead mines.

Gerardeau is a small town, situated on an eminence on the right side of the Mississippi, and contains from 30 to 40 houses only; but it has a fine back country, and is improving. There is a post road from this place to fort Massac and the mouth of the Cumberland river.

New Madrid is beautifully situated on the Mississippi; but contains a few houses only.

The government is the same as the territories east of the Mississippi, and to accommodate the white inhabitants, black men are kept in slavery by the laws.

MISSISSIPPI.

Situation and Extent. THIS state was admitted into the

Union on the 1st of March 1817.

It is situated between 30 deg. and 35 deg. of north lat., and between 11 deg. and 14 deg. 30 min. west long. from Washington. Its boundaries, as determined by the act of congress, are *North* by the southern boundary line of the state of Tennessee to the river of the same name, following its channel to the junction of Bear creek. *East*, by a direct line drawn from this point to the north-west corner of the county of Washington; and thence running due south to the gulf of Mexico. *South* by the Mexican gulf to the most eastern junction of Pearl river with lake Borgne, (including all islands within six leagues of the shore,) up this river to the 31st deg. of lat., and along this parallel to the Mississippi river. *West*, by the Mississippi river. *Length*, from north to south about 340 miles; *Breadth*, 150, containing nearly 55,000 square miles.

Natural Geography.—A chain of islands stretch along the coast, which is indented with bays, and intersected by nume-

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rous water courses. From the mouth of Pearl river to the entrance of Mobile bay, the distance is about 100 miles. Twenty-five miles east of the former is the bay of St. Louis, 10 miles in length, and four in breadth. In general, the soil and appearance of the country are very uninviting, and have been described by the French writers in the most unfavourable colours. But these accounts apply only to the sea-coast, where the banks of the rivers, to the distance of 20 or 25 miles, are nearly on a level with its waters, and the surface being sandy or marshy, and liable to inundation, it is ill fitted for agricultural purposes; but beyond this distance, or the 31st deg. of lat., the soil along the Pearl and Pascagoula rivers, from one to three miles in breadth, and known in the country by the name of *Swamp*, is rich and productive, covered in its natural state with a fine growth of different trees, cotton-wood, gum, oak, bay, laurel, and magnolia; intermixed, in the more elevated parts, with lofty cane, and, in the low, with cypress. Between these borders the soil, to the distance of 100 miles, is generally sandy, and covered with the long-leaved pine; but above this again the surface gradually rises with a deep vegetable mould, which nourishes a fine growth of poplar, oak, hickory, black walnut, sugar maple, buck-eye, elm, hack-berry, &c. Towards the northern line of demarcation, the surface is more unequal, and more fertile; it is of the colour of ashes, and capable of yielding many successive crops without manure. The rocks are calcareous, with some mixture of flint, slate, and sandstone. The whole surface between the Mississippi river and Yazoo branch, to the Tennessee river, is rich, well watered, and healthy. The author of the *Western Gazetteer* considers the country bordering on this last river, for 100 miles above and below the Mussel Shoals, and for 40 north and south, as the garden of North America, and unquestionably the most favourable to longevity and human enjoyment. The soil is adapted to corn, sweet potatoes, indigo, cotton, esculent vegetables, and fruit. Even wheat will yield a good productive crop. But it is the excellence of the waters, mildness and healthfulness of the climate, and proximity to the navigable

waters of Tennessee and Tombigbee, that render it the most desirable to new settlers of any of the states or territories within the limits of the Union.

The course of the river Mississippi, along the western frontier, is 573 miles. The Tennessee river forms the northeastern boundary, to the junction of Bear creek, a distance of about 50 miles. *Pascagoula* river runs south 250 miles through the central parts of the state to the gulf of Mexico, where it forms a broad bay. *Pearl* river, which separates this state from that of Louisiana, is navigable to the distance of 150 miles from its mouth, but its entrance is obstructed by trees and logs, and has only seven feet water. *Yazoo* river rises from several sources near the northern boundary of this state, and runs in a south-west course to the Mississippi, which it enters nearly at right angles in lat. 32 deg. 28 min., 112 miles above Natchez, with an outlet 280 yards wide. The *Bayou Pierre* runs into the Mississippi 40 miles above Natchez; and above this two other streams, called Cole's creek and Catharine's creek, each 40 yards wide. *Homochitto* river rises near Pearl river, south-east of Natchez, and falls into an old channel of the Mississippi above Loftus's heights in lat. 31 deg. 12 min. It is a fine stream 60 yards wide. There are a number of other streams and creeks. The whole navigable waters of this territory form a total extent of 2742 miles. Coal is said to be found on the Tombigbee, Tennessee, Black Warrior, and other streams.

The two great articles of culture are cotton and Indian corn. Cotton is planted in the latter end of February and beginning of March. The average produce *per acre* is 1000 pounds in the seed. Maize is planted from the 1st of March to the 1st of July, and is of a fine quality in this state, the bushel in many parts weighing 70 pounds. Rice is raised in the southern parts. Wheat, rye, and oats, do not thrive so well as in the northern states, and are not cultivated except for the use of the establishment. Horned cattle are so numerous, that some farmers have from 500 to 1000 head.

Population.—The population of this territory does not exceed 50,000 persons, of whom nearly one half are slaves.

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Chief Towns.—*Natchez*, situated on the bank of the Mississippi, in lat. 31 deg. 33 min., about 300 miles above New Orleans, contains about 150 houses, belonging chiefly to cotton planters, some of whom have a revenue of from 5000 to 30,000 dollars a-year. The plantations extend to the distance of 20 miles. East of this town, and near to the possessions of the Choctaw Indians, the progress of society is evinced by the publication of two weekly newspapers. To the north-east of Natchez, on the upper branches of St. Catherine's creek, is *Setterstown*, or *Ellicottville*, consisting of 15 or 20 houses. On the middle, and between the two principal branches of Cole's creek, which unite 15 miles from its entrance into the Mississippi, stands the town of *Greenville*, the capital of Jefferson county, consisting of between 60 and 70 buildings, including the court-house, church, and post-office. A few miles, in a south-western direction, is the village of *Uniontown*, which is yet inconsiderable. Two miles below the mouth of the Bayou Pierre is *Brownsburg*, where a few families live; and, at the distance of 30 miles from its junction with the Mississippi, is *Port Gibson*, the chief town of Claiborne county, containing about 60 houses, with an academy. On Big Black river, which is 12 miles above the former, the settlements extend to the distance of 40 miles along its branches. Twenty-seven miles above the junction of this river, on the upper side of the great western bend of the Mississippi, is situated the village of *Palmyra*, established by emigrants from New England. Twenty-five miles higher up, on the undulating fertile surface of the Walnut Hills, are fine cotton plantations.

Trade and Resources.—Natchez is the only place of considerable commerce. Beef, pork, and corn, are sent to Mobile and Pensacola, from the eastern parts, through the channel of the Tombigbee. The surplus productions of the western parts pass through the Mississippi.

Government.—The convention, for the purpose of forming a constitution and state government, was composed of representatives from each county, chosen by all the free white male citizens, of 21 years of age, who had resided within the terri-

tory one year previous to the election, and paid county or territorial tax. This convention, consisting of 48 members from the 14 counties, met at the town of Washington, on the first Monday of July, 1817. The constitution is similar to that of the neighbouring states.

ALIBAMA TERRITORY.

Situation and Extent. THIS territory, including nearly one half of the former Mississippi territory on the eastern side, and situated between the 30th and 35th deg. of north lat., was established by an act of the American congress, dated the 3d of March, 1817, with the following boundaries: From the point where the Perdido river intersects the 31st degree of latitude, in an easterly direction, to the western boundary line of the state of Georgia; along this line to that of the southern boundary of the state of Tennessee; thence westerly to the Tennessee river, and by its channel to the mouth of Bear creek; thence by a direct line to the north-west corner of Washington county; and from this point, in a southern direction, to the gulf of Mexico, including all the islands within six leagues of the shore. It has the state of Mississippi on the west, Tennessee on the north, Georgia on the east, and the province of West Florida on the south. Its area is not properly ascertained, but probably exceeds 40,000 square miles.

Natural Geography.—The largest river of this territory, running from north to south, is the Mobile. It is a fine stream between 300 and 400 yards in width; the current clear, and running at the rate of two miles an hour. Its two great branches, which are known by the names of Tallapoosa and Coosa, unite at the distance of about 415 miles from the

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outlet of the Mobile. It has from four to five feet water to the junction of the Alabama and Tombigbee, a distance of 45 miles. The Alabama branch is always navigable for vessels drawing six feet water to Fort Claiborne, 60 miles; and there is from four to five feet water 150 miles higher up to the mouth of the Cawhaba, which falls in on the western side; and thence to the junction of the Coosa and Tallapoosa, 160 miles, there is three feet of water in the shallowest places, affording a good navigation, except along two ripples, which skilful watermen pass safely by directing the boat with poles.

Above one half of this territory is poor pine land. To the east of the Alabama river, the soil is generally sandy, and covered with pines, except along the water courses; and in some places it is intersected with rich limestone meadows, and ridges of well-timbered land. Colonel Parmentier remarks, that, ascending the river from the town of Mobile, you see the lands on both sides constantly overflowed. The first dry lands are 21 miles above the mouth of the river. Here are traces of clay, mixed in layers, or rather in oblique veins, with the sand. Throughout the 31st degree of latitude the swamps are amazingly productive. Between these marshes or swamps and the ferruginous hills, there is a middle tract, rising by a gentle ascent, the soil of which is a blackish earth, thickly spread with small flint stones, or round quartz. The upper region contains an infinite number of siliceous stones, covered with iron in a sulphureous state. The streams also, which flow through it, contain this mineral in a dissolved state. The soil of the borders of the Alabama (called pine lands) produces maize, cotton, and sugar. Above and below the confluence of this river with the Tombigbee there are extensive swamps, liable to inundation; and a tract of poor stiff clay extends along their borders, a mile in breadth, terminating in a sandy soil. About 50 miles above the union of these two rivers, the high broken lands commence, and extend 60 miles northward, covered with oak, hickory, cedar, and poplar. The best soil for agriculture is between the Alabama and Tombigbee rivers. Between the waters of the Alabama and those of the Conecuh there is a waving plain, 30 miles in length and 20 in width,

with a dark clayey rich soil, well timbered and watered. Below this it is gravelly and broken, to the extent of 20 miles, where the pine barrens commence. Around the sources of Limestone creek there is a tract of rich land, 20 miles in length and eight in breadth, well watered, and covered with various kinds of trees, of which the dogwood is the most abundant, and hence the lands are known by this name.

A chain of mountains runs across this territory on the southern side of the Tennessee river, from its banks near the mouth of Bear creek to Fort Deposit on the eastern side, where it takes a northern direction across the river and the northern line of boundary. The breadth of this chain opposite Mussel shoals is about 50 miles, in many places it rises to half a mile above its base, and is every where impassable for waggons. The hills and mountains are all calcareous, except the summit of the last, which consists of sandstone. The hills contain a great quantity of iron ore.

In the low southern parts of this country the heat is very great. The climate of the inland and upper parts resembles that of Georgia.

The wild animals are, the panther, bear, wild cat, deer, beaver, otter, fox, racoon, squirrel, hare, and rabbit. Alligators, from twelve to fifteen feet long, abound in the rivers; snakes in the marshy and woody places.

The Creek Indians, known also by the name of Muscogees, reside chiefly on the waters of the Alabama and Chatahouche; where, before the late war, they counted 30 towns; but, during that period, their number was greatly reduced. The population is now about 20,000.

Population.—The present population of the territory is estimated at 50,000. The emigration is chiefly from Georgia, the Carolinas, Kentucky, and Tennessee. The American government lately ceded 100,000 acres of land on the Tombigbee, near the junction of the Black Warrior branch, to a French company, at two dollars an acre, payable in fourteen years, on condition of their introducing and cultivating the vine and the olive; but this colony has since removed to the frontier country between the United States and Mexico.

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Towns.—The chief town is *Mobile*. It is situated at the entrance of the river of the same name, on a fine plain, about 20 feet above the usual rise of the water. When taken possession of by the Americans, it contained about 200 houses. Since that period the population has increased daily, and it will probably become a great commercial place, the centre of trade of an immense country, extending to Tennessee and to the frontiers of Georgia. In July, 1817, the population was between 1000 and 1500. The houses are of wood, and generally one story high. Pensacola, however, affords a better road for vessels, as they are sheltered from every wind; and the depth of water on the bar at its entrance, which is never less than 21 feet, will admit men-of-war of 60 guns. The port of Mobile is the only place in the whole bay which vessels drawing twelve feet water can approach. Those that draw from ten and a half to eleven feet water sail up Spanish river about two leagues, and descend Mobile river to the town, which requires but a few hours. Vessels of greater draught come within one or two leagues of the town, where they discharge and take in their cargoes. A quay is now constructing, at the eastern extremity of which there will be nine feet water at low tide. Between Mobile bay and Pensacola, a distance of 70 miles, the country is yet a desert. A village has been lately planned, at the mouth of the Tensaw river, on a dry elevated surface, where there are fine springs. *St. Stephen's*, the present government, is situated on the west side of Tombigbee river, 80 miles above the town of Mobile, and at the head of sloop navigation; it contains about 50 houses. There is an academy, with 60 or 70 students, a printing-office, and fifteen stores. The situation, which is well fitted for trade, is found to be healthy.

Commerce.—It was stated in the American journals of April, 1817, that the importations of the preceding year, at Mobile, from Boston, New York, and New Orleans, chiefly by sea, were estimated at 1,000,000 of dollars; that, during the last six months, 1700 bales of cotton had been shipped there. The trade of Maddison county will centre in this place.

Government.—The country watered by the Alabama is formed into a district, under the name of Washington, the extent of which, excluding Indian lands, is estimated at 33,000 square miles. It is subdivided into eight counties. The governor and secretary are appointed by the president of the United States, with the advice and consent of the senate.

History.—In 1800, this country (including the present state of Mississippi) was placed under a separate territorial government. In 1818 (April) the country situated to the west of Perdido river, being included in the cession of Louisiana, was taken possession of by the United States; and that portion east of Pearl river was annexed to the Mississippi territory. In September, 1816, a tract of 13,000 square miles, situated on both sides of the Mussel shoals of the Tennessee river, was ceded by the Indians to the United States.

ILLINOIS.

Situation and Extent. **T**HIS territory is situated between 36 deg. 57 min. and 42 deg. 30 min. north lat., and contains an area of 66,000 square miles, or 42 millions of acres. Its length from north to south is 380 miles, and its breadth from east to west 206 miles. It has the north-west territory on the north; the state of Kentucky and the Missouri territory on the south and west; and the state of Indiana on the east.

Natural Geography.—The chief rivers are the Illinois, Kaskaskias, and Stony rivers, all admitting of boat navigation; and the Wabash, which divides this territory from Indiana. The Illinois river rises near the south end of lake Michigan, and is formed by the waters of the Theakiki and Plein rivers,

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which unite in north lat. 41 deg. 48 min. Thence it pursues a south-west course of nearly 500 miles to its junction with the Mississippi, 18 miles above that of the Missouri, and 84 north of the mouth of the Kaskaskias. The Illinois is 400 yards wide at its mouth, is boatable to the Little Rocks, 60 miles from the Forks or extreme branches, and 270 from its outlet.

The next river of this territory, in point of magnitude, is the Kaskaskias, which issues from the meadows to the south of lake Michigan, and falls into the Mississippi 84 miles south of the Illinois, after a south-south-westerly course of 200 miles, 130 of which from its mouth it is navigable for boats and small craft. It runs through a rich country abounding in extensive meadows covered with the richest pasture.

The southern part of this territory between the Mississippi and the Ohio is very level, and is, in some parts, subject to inundation. This increases the depth and fertility of the soil, and renders it even too rich for many agricultural purposes. A tract extending from the mouth of the Wabash, and along the Mississippi, 80 miles in length and five in breadth, is of this description, and is very unhealthy. The rest of the country is very similar to Indiana, but more picturesque, particularly between Vincennes and St. Louis, where rich meadows and beautiful woods alternately present themselves. Along the Little Wabash, the soil of the prairies is a rich fine black mould, inclining to sand, from one to three or four feet deep, lying on sandstone or clayey loam, and remarkably easy of cultivation. Between the Kaskaskias and Illinois rivers, 84 miles distant, the surface is level till within fifteen miles of the latter, where it terminates in a high ridge. Charlevoix describes the north-western parts which he visited as rich, beautiful, and well watered. The climate being very temperate, cattle and sheep would multiply prodigiously; and the wild buffaloes might be tamed, and great advantages might be drawn from a trade in their wool and hides. The high grounds continue along the eastern side of the Kaskaskias river, at a small distance from it, to the Kaskaskias village, five miles and a half. The sides of some of these hills fronting the river are in many places perpendicular, and appear like solid pieces

of stone masonry of various colours, figures, and sizes. The low land between these hills and the river Mississippi is level; the soil rich, yielding shrubs and fragrant flowers, which, added to the number and extent of meadows and ponds interspersed through the valley, render it exceedingly beautiful and agreeable. The lands between the Illinois and Mississippi rivers are rich almost beyond parallel, covered with large oaks, walnut, &c. and not a stone is to be seen except upon the sides of the rivers. Above the Illinois lake, the land on both sides, to the distance of 27 or 30 miles, is generally low and full of swamps, some a mile wide, bordered with fine meadows; and in some places the high land approaches the river in points or narrow necks. The alluvial soil of the rivers, the breadth of which is generally in proportion to their magnitude, varying from 300 or 400 yards to more than two miles, is so wonderfully fertile, that it has produced fine crops without manure for more than a century. Beyond this, the dry meadow land without trees, rising from 30 to 100 feet above the former, stretches to the distance of from one to ten miles. The whole meadow ground of the Illinois river is supposed to contain an area of 1,200,000 acres. The north-western parts are hilly and broken, abounding in ponds and swamps, called *wet prairies*, but well watered and wooded, and containing tracts of fertile soil.

Copper ore is said to have been discovered on Mine river, which joins the Illinois, 120 miles from its mouth. Millstones were formerly made by the French, of a rock which forms a rapid in the Illinois river. Alum was found on a hill, near Mine river. Coal was observed extending half a mile along the high bank of the north-western side of the Illinois river. According to Hutchins, quarries of limestone, freestone, and marble, exist along the Mississippi, from between the Ohio and the Kaskaskia. White clay is found in the beds of the Illinois and Tortue. The salt works, on the Saline river, (26 miles below the mouth of the Wabash,) furnish annually between 200,000 and 300,000 bushels of salt, which is sold at the works, at from 50 to 75 cents per bushel.

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What was said of the climate of Indiana applies almost equally to Illinois. Winter is on the whole an agreeable season. Extreme cold occurs only when the wind sets in from the north-west, the thermometer then falling to 7 or 8 deg. below zero; but when it shifts to any other quarter, mild weather and sunshine return, with the thermometer frequently above 50 deg. in the shade.

Population.—In 1810 the population was estimated at 12,282 persons. In 1819 it was estimated at 30,000; the ratio of increase being 30 per cent. per annum.

Towns.—This being a newly settled territory, it contains no towns of any consequence. *Shawneetown*, or *Shawanetown*, where once stood a village of the Indians of this name, is situated on the Ohio, below the Wabash, and was laid out at the expence of the United States. It was injured by an inundation in the spring of 1819, which swept away the log-houses and drowned the cattle. The inhabitants escaped in boats. It now contains 30 or 40 families, who live in cabins formed of trees or logs, and subsist by the manufacture of salt. There are several other villages, which may soon become places of some importance.

In the autumn of 1817, Mr. Birkbeck, an intelligent and enterprising English farmer, removed to this country, and settled in the south-east parts, between the Great and Little Wabash, at a spot to which he has given the name of English Prairie. In his 'Notes on America,' and 'Letters from Illinois,' he has given a just and striking description of the face of the country, its soil, productions, mode of culture, and capacities of improvement; and he has pointed out the great advantages it offers to settlers, especially to labourers, and farmers of small capital. The extensive circulation of these works has attracted an extraordinary degree of attention to his settlement; and the very favourable account he has given of the country, with the confidence reposed by those who know him, and by those who have read his Notes, in his judgment and agricultural skill, have induced numbers to emigrate to the neighbourhood, both from England and the United States. It

appears, from a variety of notices in the American journals, that population is increasing in this quarter with great rapidity.

Commerce.—Numbers of cattle are raised in the fertile soil called 'the Great American Bottom,' between the Kaskaskia and Illinois river, for the markets of Baltimore and Philadelphia. Horses of the Spanish breed are also raised for sale.

Government.—The government of this territory was established by acts of congress, dated 3d of February, 1809; and congress passed an act on the 18th of February, 1818, authorizing the inhabitants of this territory to form a constitution and state government, and to be admitted into the Union, on an equal footing with the original states. The convention to be chosen for this purpose, were to meet on the first Monday of August, 1818. Slavery is abolished by law, and by act of 5th February, 1813.

History.—The first settlements were made by the French at Kaskaskias, Kahokia, Fort Massac, and other places, which are still inhabited by their descendants, though the country was under the dominion of the British from the year 1756 to the treaty of peace with the United States. The Indians then inhabiting and claiming this territory were the Kaskaskias, the Sacks and Foxes, and the Piankashaws. In 1803, the first tribe ceded to the United States a tract of 12,000 square miles from the mouth of the Ohio to that of the Illinois, and 80 miles in breadth from the Mississippi. Since this time several other secessions have taken place, until the state swelled to its present extent.

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MICHIGAN

Situation and Extent. **M**ICHIGAN, formerly Wayne county, was erected into a territory with a separate government in 1805, with the following limits: north, by the straits of Michillimakinac; west, by lake Michigan; south, by a line running from east to west, which separates it from the states of Ohio and Indiana; east, by lakes Huron and St. Clair, to lake Erie. The southern line has not yet been accurately fixed. It is situated between 41 deg. 50 min. and 46 deg. 20 min. of north lat., and 5 deg. 12 min. and 9 deg. west long. from Washington. It includes a surface of 47,500 square miles, 30,400,000 acres. Its length from south to north is 250 miles, its breadth from east to west 160 miles. This territory forms a peninsula bounded on the north, east, and west sides by the great lakes Michigan and Huron.

Natural Geography.—This territory is nearly environed by the great lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan, and a great number of small pieces of water are interspersed throughout the interior parts. The total extent of navigable waters, including rivers, is 1789 miles.

The surface has a gentle elevation from the western and northern borders towards the middle, which is generally level, and without hills or mountains. Extensive meadow lands stretch from the banks of the St. Joseph's to lake St. Clair, some of which, called 'high prairies,' are equal in quality to those of Indiana, and are of very different soil from the low prairies, which are sandy or marshy. Other parts are covered with extensive forests. The lands on Saganaum river are of a good quality; meadow lands extend from its banks to the distance of four or five miles. Thence to Flint river, fifteen miles, the country is level, the soil excellent, and covered with trees; thence to the Huron river the surface is waving, cover-

ed with oak without underwood, and interspersed with lakes, resembling the county of Cayuga in the state of New York. From Huron to Detroit the soil is rich, but low and marshy. The soil of the banks of the rivers St. Joseph's and Saganaum is of an excellent quality. Along the straits of St. Clair there are fine meadows interspersed with rich wood lands. The banks of the Huron and Rouge rivers are also very fertile and well wooded. Those of Swan creek are low and unhealthy within a mile of the lake, beyond which there is high and good soil. That of the uplands of Rocky and Sandy creeks is poor and sandy. The alluvial soil of the rivers Raisin and Miami is excellent near their outlets; but at some distance becomes light and sandy. Along a considerable part of the coast of lake Michigan are sandy eminences, formed near the mouths of the rivers by the action of their current operating against the swell of the lake. Along the western shore of lake Huron there is a narrow tract of poor soil, from half a mile to a mile in breadth. It is believed that this territory contains twenty millions of acres of excellent soil, of which eight millions have been ceded by the Indians to the United States, who have sold above 200,000 to different individuals.

The banks of Rocky creek and other streams are calcareous. On two branches of the Saganaum river there are salt springs, which, it is believed, will be sufficient for the use of the territory, and all the settlements on the upper lakes.

The northern situation of this country would seem to indicate a considerable degree of cold; but it is found to be so modified by the waters of the lakes, that the winter is warmer than in some more southern latitudes. The season commences about the middle of November, and lasts till the middle of March; and the ice on the rivers and borders of the lakes, during this period, is generally strong enough to support sledges. There is but little snow. Towards the state of Indiana, the climate resembles that of the western counties of New York and Pennsylvania; but along the coast of lake Huron, the winter commences two weeks earlier than at Detroit. Lake St. Clair is frozen over every year from December to February. According to the observations of general

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Wilkinson, made in 1797, the thermometer between St. Clair and Michillimackinac never rose higher at noon than 70 deg., and in the morning and evening it often sunk to 46 deg.

Population.—The population of this territory, which is chiefly of French origin, has not increased so rapidly as might have been expected from its salubrity and advantageous commercial situation. In 1800 there were about 3000 inhabitants; in 1810 the number did not amount to 5000. In 1816 it was estimated at 12,000, exclusive of Indians.

Chief Towns.—*Detroit*, situated on the western side of the strait, eighteen miles above Maldon, and six below the outlet of lake St. Clair, contains more than 300 buildings. About half the population is of French origin, the rest from different parts of Europe and the United States. It was originally defended by a strong stockade, which was burnt down in 1806. Several wooden quays, or wharfs, project into the river. That of the United States is 140 feet long, and the water is deep enough for a vessel of 400 tons burthen. The public buildings consist of a council-house, prison, and store. The last is of three stories, 80 feet in length, and 30 feet wide. Another store is now building. The present Roman catholic chapel is to be replaced by a new one of a large size. A college is to be established here, and the building has already commenced. There is a printing office, and formerly a newspaper, called the 'Michigan Essay,' was issued from Utica, but it has been discontinued for want of encouragement.

Manufactures and Commerce.—The manufactures of this territory, in 1810, amounted to 37,018 dollars; but their progress was checked during the war by the ravages of the Indians. Sides of leather, 2720; saddles, 60; hats, 600; whiskey, 19,400 gallons; brandy, 1000; soap, 37,000 pounds; candles, 6500; woollen cloth, 2405 yards; flax stuffs, 1195; hemp mixed, 20.

From Detroit the exports in 1810 amounted to 3615 dollars. In 1817 the exports in cyder, apples, and fish, amounted to 60,000 dollars. Detroit and Michillimackinac are ports of entry. The imports are from the state of Ohio, and consist of beef, pork, cheese, butter, and whiskey.

History.—This country, when first discovered by the whites, was occupied by the Hurons, many of whom, about the year 1648, were converted to Christianity by the Jesuit missionaries, who erected a chapel at the falls of St. Mary, and another on the island of St. Joseph. About the year 1670, the Hurons were defeated and dispersed by their implacable enemies, known by the name of Six Nations; and at the close of the American war, this territory was occupied by different tribes, whose warriors amounted to 3500. In 1668 Louis XIV. sent a small number of troops to this territory to protect the trade in furs, and some years afterwards a fort was built at Detroit, and another at Michillimackinac, by which means the traders were enabled, notwithstanding the opposition of the Iroquois, to extend this commerce to the borders of the Mississippi; but these advantages were lost by the war of 1756, which deprived the French of all their North American possessions; and this territory falling into the hands of the English, was ceded to the United States by the peace of 1783, and was placed under the protection of a governor, with temporary regulations extending to all the country north-west of the Ohio. The English fort of Detroit was also ceded in 1796, and the peninsula received the name of Wayne county. In 1805, a distinct government was established under its present name.

MISSOURI TERRITORY.

Situation and Extent. **T**HE Missouri territory extends from the Mississippi on the east, to the Rocky mountains on the west, and from the gulf of Mexico on the south, to Canada on the north. It lies between 29 and 49 deg. of north lat., and 12 deg. 50 min. and 32 deg. of west long. from Washington. Its length, from south to north, is

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about 1400 miles, and its breadth, from east to west, 886 miles; containing an area of about 985,250 square miles, or 680,560,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—The country upon the north side of the Missouri river consists of fine rich meadows, or hills covered with a tolerable good soil, and thinly wooded. For the distance of 200 or 300 miles, from the river Mississippi to the base of the Rocky mountains, the whole country is one continued prairie, or level surface, except along the rivers, the alluvial soil of which is considerably lower than the surrounding country, and the breadth in proportion to the magnitude of the river. The Missouri river is generally from 150 to 300 feet below the level of the surface.

The country south of the Missouri, and along the Mississippi, from the mouth of the Arkansas to the head of Tiwappaty Bottom about the mouth of the Ohio, a distance of nearly 450 miles, is low and level. The high grounds commence about twelve miles below cape Girardeau, from which a chain of hills stretches across the country to the St. Francis, dividing the lower from the upper country. The low lands are generally well wooded, the high grounds very thinly, and scarcely a shrub is seen on the natural meadows. On the northern bank of the Osage river there is an extensive tract of rich alluvial soil; that on the opposite side is inferior, but it opens into a fine fertile plain, which is seen to great advantage from the summit of some high mounds or insulated hills near the Indian village. 'From this eminence,' says Mr. Brown, a surveyor, 'I am persuaded that, turning round, I could survey 500 square miles, and nearly all of the first quality; timber and springs only are wanting to make this the finest part of the world I have yet seen.' From this point towards the woody country, a distance of 130 miles, the land becomes gradually less fertile to the streams of the Grand river of the Arkansas, which runs in a western direction. But, upon the whole, this immense tract of country is wild and uninviting.

Lead ore is very abundant in this country; it is said to extend through a surface 600 miles in length, and 200 in breadth, from St. Genevieve to the mines of the Sack and Fox Indians,

on the Mississippi. Iron ore on the rivers St. Francis, Maramek, and Osage, and in the country watered by White river. Above Cedar island, 1075 miles from the mouth of the Missouri, where the alluvial soil terminates, the brown iron ore appears on the surface, and prevents vegetation. Copper, a short distance below the falls of St. Anthony. Zinc.—The blend ore of this metal is found in the pits formed for working the lead mines. Pyrites are found on the borders of the Washita river. Spar crystallized in caves and subterraneous places from the river Missouri to that of the St. Francis. Limestone abounds in the elevated country. Coal, a large body near the mouth of the Missouri, and at the foot of the bluffs on the Osage river; and, according to hunters, on the Little Missouri and Yellow Stone rivers. Alum, nitre, salt-petre, ochres, salt, &c. is found in various parts.

Deer and wild horses are numerous in this country, and travellers say that flocks of buffaloes, from 40,000 to 50,000, are seen together. The soil is well adapted for the growth of wheat and maize. Hemp is indigenous, and grows to the height of eleven feet. About 1500 weight may be obtained from an acre.

The climate of the parts of this territory already settled, situated between the 33d and 40th degrees of north lat., is subject to extremes of heat and cold, similar to those which are experienced in the Atlantic states; but they are here of much shorter duration, and the general temperature is mild and agreeable. The changes are not so sudden as in the eastern states, and the north-west wind, which brings a chilling cold, seldom continues more than eight hours. Spring opens with heavy rains, which are frequent till the 1st of May, when they cease till the 1st of August; and, during this period, the weather is warm, with frequent thunder and lightning.

Population.—The population of this territory in 1817 was estimated at 68,794, including slaves and civilized Indians.

Chief Towns.—The town of *St. Louis*, situated in 38 deg. 39 min. north lat., and 12 deg. 51 min. west from Washington, extends two miles along the western side of the Mississippi, at the distance of 14 miles below the mouth of the Missouri,

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and 18 above that of the Maramek, and about 1350 above New Orleans. It was founded in 1764. There are three streets parallel with the river. Most of the houses are built of limestone, with a garden or park inclosed with a stone wall. In 1816, the population of the town of St. Louis was about 2000. The number of dwelling-houses in March, 1817, was from 350 to 400. Some of the lands near St. Louis are extremely fertile.

Herculaneum, a village of 200 inhabitants, established by colonel Hammond and major Austin, is situated on the borders of the Mississippi river, at about an equal distance from St. Louis and St. Genevieve, at the mouth of the Joachim river. Boats are built here; there are several mills in the vicinity; and a patent shot factory has been lately established by Mr. Matlock, on the edge of a rock, where there is a fall for the shot of 200 feet perpendicular.

The village of *St. Genevieve*, situated about three miles above the mouth of Gabarre creek, in lat. 57 deg. 51 min., contained, in 1816, 350 houses, an academy, eight or ten stores, and it had a road leading to the lead mines. The annual imports were then estimated at 150,000 dollars. A tract, extending five miles along the bank of the river, and containing 7000 acres, is owned by the inhabitants in common, and called the 'Common Field.'

On Big river, which traverses the tract where the lead mines are wrought, there are several compact settlements, of which the largest is *Bellevue*, situated at the distance of 50 miles west of the town of St. Genevieve. Other small establishments extend 50 miles up the Maramek, and to the waters of the St. Francis. Farm-houses are established on the navigable streams of this district; the la Vase, Saline, and Apple creek. Lead and salt are the chief articles of export. The annual produce of the former is estimated at 1,525,000*l*.

The village of *St. Charles*, on the borders of the Missouri, about 24 miles from its mouth, and 25 from St. Louis by land, contains about 1000 inhabitants. The houses extend a mile along the river, under a hill, which prevents an extension of the town in an opposite direction. This establishment was

founded in 1780, by Creoles and Canadians. It is the residence of a numerous class of watermen, called *engagées*.

The prosperity of *New Madrid*, situated on the west bank of the Mississippi, in $36\frac{1}{2}$ deg. north lat., was impeded in 1811 by an earthquake. There are several other settlements and villages in this territory, which do not merit a particular description.

Commerce.—Peltry is the principal article of trade in this district. The annual average quantity of this article, from the year 1789 to 1804, a period of fifteen years, was as follows: Castors, 36,900 lbs., valued at 66,820 dollars. Otters, 8000—37,100. Bear skins, 5100—14,200. Buffalo skins, 850—4750. Raccoon, wild cat, and fox skins, 28,200—12,280. Martins, 1300—3900. Lynx, 300—1500. Deer skins, 158,000—63,200. Total, 203,750. The average yearly value of the goods sent up the Missouri river, during the same period, was 61,250 dollars, which yielded an annual profit of 27 per. cent.

Government.—The act of the congress of the United States, providing for the government of this territory, was passed in June, 1812. The executive power is vested in a governor, appointed by the president and senate of the United States, for the term of three years. This magistrate is commander-in-chief of the militia, superintendent of Indian affairs, and is invested with power to appoint and commission all public officers, not otherwise provided for by law; to grant pardon for offences against the territory, and reprieves for those against the United States; and to convene the assembly on extraordinary offences. Delegates to congress are to be elected by the citizens at the time of electing their representatives to the general assembly, to have the same powers, privileges, and compensation, as are granted to delegates of other territories.

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NORTH-WEST TERRITORY.

Situation and Extent. **THIS** territory is bounded on the north by lake Superior, and the water communication between this lake and the Woods, and from the north-west corner of the lake of the Woods by a direct line to Red river, which it strikes a little below the junction of the Assiniboin; on the south by the Illinois territory, from which it is separated by the parallel of 42 deg. 30 min.; on the east by lake Michigan and the channel between lake Huron and lake Superior; and on the west by the Mississippi river to its sources, and thence by the waters of the Red river to the junction of the Assiniboin, which separates it from the Missouri territory. It is situated between 42 deg. 30 min. and 49 deg. 37 min. of north lat., and between 7 deg. and 20 deg. west long. from Washington. Its breadth, at the latitude of 46 deg., from east to west, is 480 miles. Its length is very unequal. Area, about 147,000 square miles, or 94,080,000 acres.

Natural Geography.—It is difficult to imagine a finer situation, with regard to water communication, than that of the North-west territory. Lake Superior, on the north, is connected with lake Michigan on the east, and with a chain of small lakes, extending to the lake of the Woods. The Mississippi extends along the western side; and beyond its sources is Red river of lake Winnipig, running in an opposite direction. The interior is intersected by numerous rivers, flowing in different directions, from sources near each other, into lakes Superior and Michigan, and the river Mississippi, and admitting of an easy communication, by means of short canals. The upper parts are studded with small lakes.

Fox river, a branch of the Illinois, which rises in the southeastern parts, is navigable 130 miles. Chicago river is an arm

of lake Michigan, at the distance of a mile from which it divides into two branches, both of which, as well as the main channel, are from 15 to 50 yards wide, and have water sufficient for the passage of large vessels, except on the bar at the entrance. Green bay, the northern extremity of which is called Noquet's bay, is an arm or branch of lake Michigan, running parallel with it, 120 miles: the interjacent land is from 20 to 40 miles broad. The breadth of Green bay varies from six to 30 miles. This bay has water sufficient for vessels of 200 tons burden, and affords an easy and safe navigation. Fox river, (called sometimes Outagamy,) which it receives at the south-western extremity, is 400 yards wide at its entrance, with three fathoms water, and is navigable 160 miles to Winnebago lake, through which this river passes to its outlet in Green bay. The river St. Louis, which falls into West bay, at the bottom of the lake, rises near some of the eastern extreme branches of the Mississippi, and is navigable 150 miles from its mouth, near which, and towards its source, the Northwest company have established several trading houses.

The Red, Swan, Muddy, and a number of other rivers, intersect this country in every direction. The Ouisconsin takes its rise about the 45th degree of latitude, near the source of the Montreal river of lake Superior, and north of that of the Fox river, with which it runs in a southern direction, separated by a high ridge to near the Carrying place, where it takes a south-western direction, to its junction with the Mississippi, in lat. 48 deg. 23 min., a distance, in following its course, of 240 miles. It is more than 100 yards wide at the Carrying place, and about half a mile near its outlet; and, throughout all this distance, it 'flows with a smooth, but strong current.' When the water is low, the navigation is impeded in some places by bars of sand. The traders of Michillimackinac send their goods through the channel of the Fox and Ouisconsin rivers to the Mississippi. The southern parts of this territory are watered by Rock river, which is said to rise near Green bay of lake Michigan, and run a course of 450 miles, for 300 of which it is navigable. Numerous lakes are interspersed throughout the interior of this territory, which are generally

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the sources of the principal rivers. The whole extent of navigable waters exceeds 8100 miles.

This territory, stretching across 18 degrees of longitude and 7 of latitude, encircled and intersected by lakes and large rivers, has a great variety of soil. Near the north-western parts must be the most elevated point of land between the Atlantic coast, the gulf of Mexico, and Hudson's bay; for here, within 30 miles of each other, the St. Lawrence, Red, and Mississippi rivers have their sources, from which they flow to those seas in an eastern, northern, and southern direction respectively, each traversing a space of more than 2000 miles. Carver describes 'the land on the south-east side of Green bay of lake Michigan as but very indifferent, being overspread with a heavy growth of hemlock, pine, spruce, and fir trees; but adjoining to the bottom of the bay, it is very fertile, the country in general level, and affording many fine and extensive views.' On the western side of the territory, below the falls of St. Anthony, the high lands and prairies have the appearance of a tolerably good soil; but above this parallel, Pike has remarked, that it gradually becomes poorer. Two-thirds of the adjacent country between the river Des Corbeaux, or parallel of 45 deg. 50 min., and Pine river, is so covered with small lakes, that it is impassable except in bark canoes. Along the water courses are clumps of oak, ash, maple, and lynn; and numbers of elk deer and buffalo are seen. From Leech lake to the sources of the Mississippi river, the whole face of the country is described by Pike 'as an impenetrable morass, or boundless savannah.' The highest mountains are those south of the Carrying place, between the Fox and Ouisconsin rivers, which Carver ascended, and 'had an extensive view of the country. For many miles nothing was to be seen but separate hills, which appeared at a distance like hay cocks, being without trees. Groves of hickory and stunted oaks covered some of the vallies.'

Silver ore has been found on the south side of lake Superior. The lead mines of Dubuque (the name of the proprietor) extend from within a few miles of the Mississippi, to the distance of 27 or 28 leagues between the Ouisconsin and Rocky

branches, occupying a breadth of from one to three miles. The annual produce of metal is from 20,000 to 30,000 pounds. Copper ore and native copper seem to abound on the southern coast of lake Superior, and on the banks of some of its tributary streams.

The elevation and northerly situation of a great portion of this territory indicate a considerable degree of cold, which, however, is modified by the great masses of water of lakes Superior and Michigan. Carver was struck with the luxuriant growth of the wild rice, which is not seen to the east of lake Erie, and scarcely ripens near its waters. On leaving Michilimackinac, in the spring season, though the trees there have not even put forth their buds, yet you arrive here in 14 days, and find the country around the bay covered with the finest verdure. According to the same traveller, the north-west wind, which brings intense cold to the New England states, is much less severe in this country.

Population.—The number of white inhabitants of this territory is yet inconsiderable, but no enumeration was made in 1810, and we have not been able to procure satisfactory information on the subject. A tract of about 8,000,000 of acres of this territory is claimed by the heirs of the late captain Jonathan Carver, in virtue of a deed in their possession, granted and signed by two of the chiefs of the Naudowessie Indians, the 1st of May, 1767.

Manners, &c.—The people belonging to the colony on Green bay are extremely polite and courteous, strictly preserving the manners of their forefathers, the French. The women, nine-tenths of whom are of Indian origin, are modest in their manners. Their costume is grotesque, wearing printed calico short gowns, petticoats of strouds, and moccasins. The men, with few exceptions, have partly adopted the manners of the Indians. Their dress is that worn by the French people of Detroit. At the carrying place, between the Fox and Ouisconsin rivers, 350 miles east of the falls of St. Anthony, two or three families of French origin are established, who charge the extravagant sum of 30 cents per cwt. for the transportation of goods; for a canoe, five dollars; a boat,

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three. It is said that the United States propose to establish a military post here.

Towns.—Here are no towns of any consequence. The *Prairie des Chiens*, or Dog meadow establishment, on the east bank of the Ouisconsin, and about a mile from its outlet, consists of 60 houses, or about 400 inhabitants, who are chiefly of French origin, with a mixture of Indian blood. These houses form a village of two streets, though some of them are scattered along the surface, to the distance of four or five miles. In spring and autumn this is a place of resort for the white traders and Indians, whose number is sometimes equal to that of the inhabitants.

THE COUNTRY

BETWEEN

THE ROCKY MOUNTAINS

AND THE

PACIFIC OCEAN.

THESE vast regions will soon be settled by the enterprising and restless inhabitants of the United States. Already has a settlement been formed at the mouth of the Columbia, where it joins the Pacific ocean, and which promises to become a place of great importance. The area of this country is estimated at 224,000 square miles.

The Rocky mountains were so named by the hunters, on account of their steep and rugged appearance. They form a part of the great chain which extends from the straits of Magellan, nearly to the polar circle. The American exploring

party not having a barometer, were unable to ascertain their heights; but the perpetual snow on their summits indicates an elevation of 8000 or 9000 feet.

Another great chain of mountains, nearly parallel to the former, and distant from them about 80 leagues, stretches across the country, near the coast. The most elevated parts of this chain, Mount Jefferson and Mount Hood, between the 44th and 45th parallels, are also covered with perpetual snow. These mountains, which have been seen by all the navigators who have visited this coast, extend more than 3000 miles from Cook's Entry to California. Between these two great ridges runs another less elevated range, in a south-west direction, towards the 45th deg. of north lat., where it terminates in a level plain. Another stretches, in a north-western direction, across the Columbia river, towards the great chain which runs parallel to the coast. Between the Rocky mountains and those near the sea, the country is a wide and extensive plain, without woods, except along the narrow elevated borders of the water courses. Towards the 46th parallel, this tract extends nearly 400 miles from east to west; near the 53d parallel, where it was observed by Mackenzie, it is contracted to 200 miles; and here the uneven surface and woods commence.

Columbia river, which traverses the country situate between the two great chains of mountains, runs first in a north-west, and afterwards southern direction, to the 46th deg. of lat., where it takes a westerly course to the Pacific ocean, into which it discharges its waters, a little above the 46th deg. of lat. The great tributary streams of the Columbia are Clarke's, Lewis, and the Multnomah rivers. The Columbia, receiving its waters through these different channels, and from very remote sources, is of considerable magnitude, several hundred miles from its mouth. At the junction of Lewis river, which is nearly 400 miles from the sea, in lat. 46 deg. 15' min., its width is 960 yards; and farther down it is from one to three miles, embracing a number of islands, some of which are of considerable extent. Above the mouth of Lewis river there are remarkable falls, where the descent, in 1200 yards, is 37 feet 8 inches, and the rapids extend from three to four miles.

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In this descent the whole mass of waters passes through a channel of black rock, half a mile long, and not more than 45 yards in width. Beyond the limits of the tide the waters were 12 feet higher in spring than in November. The Columbia, like the Missouri river, has, in some places, washed away its banks, and formed new channels; and this, perhaps, accounts for the remarkable fact noticed by Lewis and Clarke, that near the Kishewee river the trunks of large pines are found standing upright in the bed of the river, rooted in the soil at the bottom, though the waters were 30 feet in depth at the time, (the middle of April,) and are in no season less than 10. Near Lewis river the waters of the Columbia are so clear, that the salmon are seen at the depth of from 15 to 20 feet.

The other rivers which discharge their waters into the Pacific ocean in the adjacent country south of the Columbia, are the Clatsop, Chinook, and Killamuck. The last, which is 100 yards wide, is rapid, but navigable its whole length, and serves as the great channel of trade.

On the west side of the Rocky mountains, the country, for several hundred miles in length, and about 50 in breadth, is a high level plain, thinly interspersed with groves of the long-leaved pine. In descending, the soil gradually becomes more fertile, and, in many parts, is of an excellent quality. The soil, in general, throughout this country is very good. The Columbian valley, watered by the river, is shaded with groves of trees. The temperature is mild, and the soil so fertile, that it is supposed to be capable of giving subsistence to 40,000 or 50,000 persons. The adjacent highlands are also fertile, having a dark rich loamy soil, and susceptible of cultivation. One great advantage is the wood, which is sufficiently abundant to supply the wants of a considerable population.

The shore of the Pacific is low and open, with a grassy surface; but the inner side of the ridge of mountains which runs parallel therewith, is covered with thick timber.

The climate of this region is milder than in the same parallel of the Atlantic states.

The length of the route by which Lewis and Clarke travelled to the Pacific ocean was 4134 miles; but on their return,

in 1806, they came from Travellers' Rest creek directly to the falls of the Missouri river, which shortens the distance from the Mississippi to the Pacific ocean to 3555 miles. Two thousand five hundred and seventy-five miles of this distance is up the Missouri to the falls of that river; thence passing through the plains, and across the Rocky mountains, to the navigable waters of the Kooskooskee river, a branch of the Columbia, is 340 miles. Two hundred miles of this distance is a good road; 140 miles over a mountain, steep and broken, 60 miles of which was covered several feet deep with snow, at the end of June. From the navigable part of the Kooskooskee, they descended that rapid river 73 miles, to its entrance into Lewis river, passed down that river 154 miles, to the Columbia, and which conducted them to the Pacific ocean, at the distance of 413 miles. The tide-water met them in the Columbia, 180 miles from the sea. The total distance descending the Columbia waters was 640 miles, making a total of 3555 miles, on the most direct route from the mouth of the Missouri to the Pacific ocean.

COLUMBIA TERRITORY.

Situation and Extent. **THE** territory of Columbia, which formed a part of the states of Virginia and Maryland, became the permanent seat of government in the year 1801. This territory, extending on both sides of the Patomak, contains a surface of ten miles square, of which the diagonals are north and south, and east and west. The south angle is at Fort Columbia, situated at Jones's point, at the mouth of Hunting creek, on the left bank of the Patomak.

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Natural Geography.—The Patomak, which has already been described, traverses the territory of Columbia. From Washington to its mouth, in the Chesapeake bay, it is navigable for the largest frigate, a distance, in following its course, of about 200 miles. The tide water flows to the distance of three miles beyond Washington city, where the common tide rises to the height of four feet. By a survey of the Patomak, made in 1789, it was ascertained, that at the distance of 15 miles above the city of Washington, this river is 148 feet higher than at tide water; that from the mouth of Savage river, near the western limits of Maryland, to Fort Cumberland, a distance of 81 miles, the descent is 445 feet, or 14½ per mile; and from Fort Cumberland to tide water, a distance of 187 miles, the descent is 715 feet, or 3.82 per mile. By a survey, made in 1806, at the expence of the Patomak company, it was ascertained, that the Shenandoah river, from its mouth to Port Republic, is nearly the same breadth during all this distance of 200 miles, in which the descent is but 435 feet.

The Patomak company, by whom the navigation of the river has been opened, was incorporated for this purpose, by acts of the states of Maryland and Virginia, passed in the year 1784, which authorised the fund to be distributed in shares, and raised by subscription. The original capital, or stock, consisted of 701 shares, which at 444½ dollars, the value of each, amounted to 311,560 dollars. In 1807, the expences of the improvement of the Patomak amounted to 375,648 dollars; of the Shenandoah, to 65,000; and of the Conegocheague creek, to 500 dollars. The annual repairs, when the work shall have been completed, have been estimated at 20,000 dollars.

In a national point of view, this work will be of great advantage in accelerating the progress of agriculture, arts, and manufactures, diminishing the price of carriage, and facilitating the exchange of the productions and commodities of the countries watered by those rivers. The treasures of vast mountainous and woody tracts, hitherto unknown from the difficulty of communication, will be rendered accessible and

inviting to every speculation, whether of a scientific or commercial nature.

The distance from Washington to the Upper or Matilda falls of the Patomak on the Virginia side, is about 14 miles. The perpendicular descent of the falls is 76 feet, but the rapids extend for several miles up the river. The scene is wild and magnificent. The romantic scenery of the Great falls, 59 miles from Washington, is seen most to advantage from the Virginia side, and is scarcely to be equalled. There is a stupendous projecting rock covered with cedar, where one may sit and gaze at the waters dashing with impetuosity over the rugged surface. At the close of winter, vast masses of ice, rolling over the rocks with a hideous crashing noise, present a scene truly sublime.

The surface of the district of Washington is beautifully irregular and diversified; in some parts level, in others undulating or hilly, and intersected by deep vallies. The soil is so various, that it is not easy to give an exact idea of its composition. On the level banks of the Patomak there is a deep alluvion formed by the depositions of this river, and containing fragments of primitive mountains, pyrites, gravel and sand, shells, and the remains of vegetable substances. The stone with which the basons of the Patomak canal are lined is a species of sandstone, similar to what is found in coal beds. The rock employed to form the foundation, or base, of the houses of Washington, is a species of gneiss, composed of felspar, quartz, and mica, of a leafy texture, owing to the abundance and disposition of the mica.

The fishes which inhabit the river Patomak, at and near Washington, are sturgeon, rock-fish, shad, gar, eel, carp, herring, pike, perch, mullet, smelt. In a distance of about 100 miles above and below Washington, 400,000 barrels of herrings are caught annually, of which a considerable quantity are cured and exported. They are salted without being gutted, and the blood mixes with the brine, which in a few days is poured off, when the herrings are taken out, washed, and salted anew. The fisheries continue during the month of April. In 1768 an act was passed by the legislature, which,



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in 1798, became a permanent law, to prevent the destruction of young fish by weirs or dams.

It is a prevailing opinion throughout the United States, that the climate of the district of Washington is unhealthy; but this opinion is not formed on good grounds, for it is certain, that in no season is it visited by habitual or endemic disease. The best proof of the salubrity of a place is the longevity of its inhabitants. During autumn bilious fever sometimes prevails; but, at this season, it is common to other parts of the United States. In winter chronic diseases often occur, occasioned by the sudden changes of weather, which check perspiration; but these are not confined to this city. In July the heat is often oppressive; but it is believed, on good grounds, that the climate has been improved by the clearing of the country, and that the extremes both of heat and cold are now less violent than formerly. During the last ten years, the average depth of the snow has not exceeded eight or ten inches, though it was much greater in the memory of persons still living.

Population.—The population of the territory of Columbia in 1800 was 14,098; in 1810 it amounted to 24,023; that of the city was 8368; of Georgetown, 4048; of Alexandria, 7227; of Washington county, exclusive of towns, 2185; that of Alexandria county, 1325. In 1817 Georgetown and Washington were supposed to contain 20,000 inhabitants, and the whole district 30,000.

City of Washington.

The city of Washington is situated on the Patomak, at the confluence of this river with its eastern branch, which formerly bore the name of Annakostia, in lat. 38 deg. 55 min. north, and in long. 76 deg. 58 min. from Greenwich.

From Washington to Philadelphia the distance is 144 miles.

To Baltimore, 45

To Richmond, 132

To Annapolis, 40

The meridional line which passes through the capitol was drawn by Mr. Ellicot. The longitude was calculated by Mr. Lambert.

It is scarcely possible to imagine a situation more beautiful, healthy, and convenient, than that of Washington. The gently undulating surface produces a pleasing and varied effect. The rising hills on each side of the Patomak are truly picturesque; the river is seen broken and interrupted by the sinuosities of its course, and the sails of large vessels gliding through the majestic trees which adorn its banks, give additional beauty to the scenery.

The site of the city extends from north-west to south-east about four miles and a half, and from north-east to south-west about two miles and a half. The houses are thinly scattered over this space; the greatest number are in the Pennsylvania avenue between the capitol and the president's house, from the latter towards Georgetown, and near the barracks and navy-yard on the eastern branch. The public buildings occupy the most elevated and convenient situations, to which the waters of the Tiber creek may be easily conducted, as well as to every other part of the city not already watered by springs. The streets run from north to south, and from east to west, crossing each other at right angles, with the exception of fifteen, named after the different states, and which run in an angular direction. The Pennsylvania street, or avenue, which stretches in a direct line from the president's house to the capital, is a mile in length, and 160 feet in breadth; the breadth of the narrowest streets is from 90 to 100 feet.

The plan of this city, of which we have given an engraving, is universally admired. The most eligible places have been selected for public squares and public building. The capitol is situated on a rising ground, which is elevated about 80 feet above the tide water of the Patomak, and 60 or 70 above the intermediate surface. This edifice will present a front of 650 feet, with a colonnade of 260 feet, and 16 Corinthian columns 31½ feet in height. The elevation of the dome is 150 feet; the basement story 20; the entablement 7; the parapet 6½; the centre of the building, from the east to the west portico, is

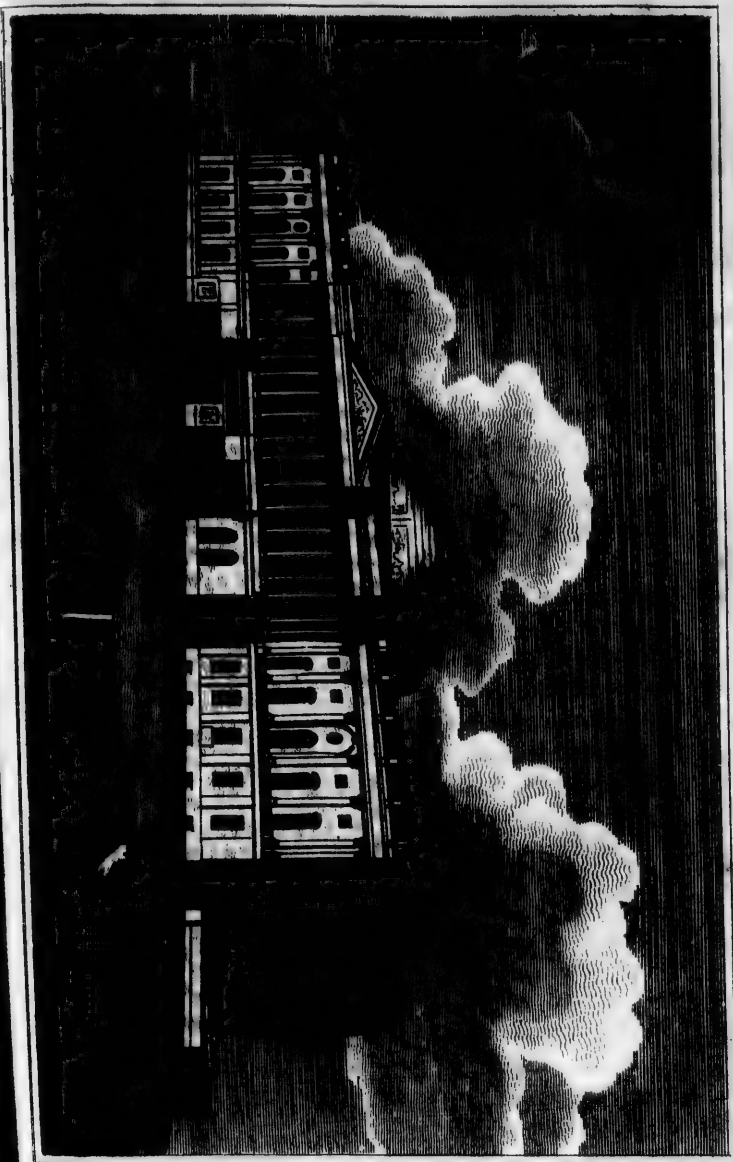
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240 feet. The ceiling is vaulted, and the whole edifice is to be of solid masonry of hewn stone, which, in appearance, resembles that known by the name of the Portland stone. The centre, or great body of the building, is not yet commenced, but the two wings are nearly finished. The north wing, which contains the senate chamber, has the form of a segment, with a double-arched dome, and Ionic pillars. It is adorned with portraits of Louis XVI. and Mary Antoinette. Under the senate chamber are commodious rooms for the library, and the judiciary courts of the United States. The south wing, containing the hall of representatives, and rooms for transacting business by committees, is of a circular form, adorned with 24 Corinthian pillars, behind which are galleries and lobbies for the accommodation of those who listen to the debates.

The foundation was laid in 1794, the north wing was finished in 1801, the south wing in 1807. The interior was originally of wood, which soon decayed; and to substitute stone, it became necessary to change the whole arrangement. This magnificent edifice is the joint composition of several artists; Thornton, Latrobe, Hallet, and Hatfield.

The post-office is a large brick building, situated at about equal distances from the president's house and the capitol. Under the same roof is the patent-office, and also the national library, for the use of members of congress. In the first of these departments are upwards of 900 specimens of native mechanical genius. This would appear to afford decisive proof, that Americans are not deficient in inventive talent. The library is small, consisting of but 3000 volumes; but it is select and well chosen, and includes various classes of literature, having been the property of Mr. Jefferson, for which he obtained from the United States 20,000 dollars. The former library, containing from 7 to 8000, was destroyed by our *enlightened* countrymen. So great has been, at some periods, the depreciation of property in this city, that in 1802, what had originally cost 200,000 dollars, was sold for 25,000. This decay continued to go on, until the visit of general Ross, and the subsequent signature of peace: since that time it seems to have risen, like the phoenix from the flames, and is once more

partially increasing in prosperity. There are now a number of two and three story brick buildings, none of which are uninhabited; and also some small wooden houses, though, according to the original plan, none were to be built less than three stories high, and all to have marble steps. But the childish folly of this scheme was soon subverted by the natural course of events; and though the existence of '*lower orders*,' even in the capital of the republic, may not accord with the vanity of its legislators, they ought to be told, that neither prosperity nor population can be possessed by any nation without a due admixture of the *natural classes* of society.

The president's house consists of two stories, and is 170 feet in length, and 85 in breadth. It resembles Leinster-house, in Dublin, and is much admired. Even the poet Moore styles it a 'grand edifice,' a 'noble structure.' The view from the windows fronting the river is extremely beautiful.

One of the objects embraced by the original plan was the establishment of a university, on an extensive scale, for the whole Union. A communication was made on this subject by the president to the congress in 1817.

The public offices, the treasury, department of state, and of war, are situated in a line with, and at the distance of 450 feet from, the president's house. These buildings, of two stories, have 120 feet in front, 60 in breadth, and 16 feet in height, and are ornamented with a white stone basement, which rises six or seven feet above the surface. It was originally proposed to form a communication between these offices and the house of the president, a plan which was afterwards abandoned.

The jail consists of two stories, and is 100 by 21 feet. The infirmary is a neat building. There are three commodious market-places, built at the expence of the corporation.

The public buildings at the navy-yard are the barracks, a work-shop, and three large brick buildings for the reception of naval stores. The barracks, constructed of brick, are 600 feet in length, 50 in breadth, and 20 in height. At the head of the barrack-yard is the colonel's house, which is neat and commodious. The work-shop, planned by Latrobe, is 900 feet in length.

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The patent office, constructed according to the plan of J. Hoban, esq. (who gained the prize for that of the president's house,) consists of three stories, and is 130 feet long, and 60 feet wide. It is ornamented with a pediment, and six Ionic pilasters. From the eminence on which it stands, the richly wooded hills rise on every side, and present a scene of unequalled beauty.

The inhabitants of the city form a body, politic and corporate, under the title of 'Mayor and Council of Washington.' The council, consisting of 12 members, not under 25 years of age, is elected annually by the free white male inhabitants aged 21 or upwards, who have paid taxes the year preceding the election, and is divided into two chambers, the first of which has seven, and the second five members. The fines, penalties, and forfeitures imposed by the council, if not exceeding 20 dollars, are recovered, like small debts, before a magistrate; and if greater than this sum, by an action of debt in the district-court of Columbia. In 1806, the corporation passed an act to establish an infirmary, for which the sum of 2000 dollars was appropriated, and trustees appointed for the superintendence of this establishment. In August, 1810, a sum not exceeding 1000 dollars was appropriated, for the support of the infirm and diseased; and the corporation have allotted certain squares (numbered 109 and 1026) for places of interment, which are situated at a proper distance from the populous part of the city. Two dollars are the price of a grave.

The canal, which runs through the centre of the city, commencing at the mouth of the Tiber creek, and connecting the Patomak with its eastern branch, is nearly completed. Mr. Law, (brother to the late lord Ellenborough,) the chief promoter of this undertaking, proposes to establish packet-boats, to run between the Tiber creek and the navy-yard, a conveyance which may be rendered more economical and comfortable than the hackney-coach. This canal is to be navigable for boats drawing three feet water. If the nett profits exceed 15 per cent. on the sum expended, the excess is to be paid to the mayor and city council.

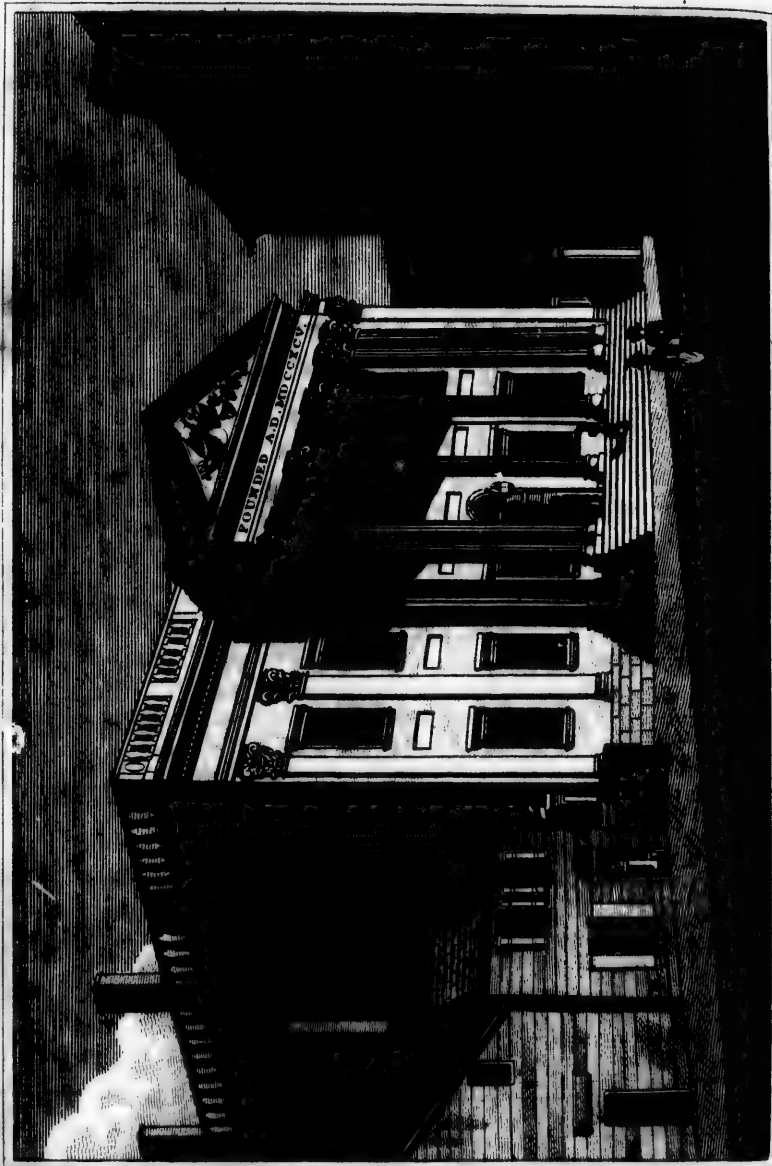
The Patomak bridge was built under the direction of a company, or board of commissioners, and the funds were raised by a subscription consisting of 2000 shares, at 100 dollars per share. The expences of the work amounted to 96,000 dollars, and consequently the real value of a share was 48. The bridge, which is covered with planks of white and yellow pine, is a mile in length, and is supported by strong piles, from 18 to 40 feet, according to the depth of the water. A neat railing separates the foot from the horse-way. By means of a simple crank and pulley, the draw-bridge, for the passage of vessels, is raised by the force of one individual.

The tolls are high; a four-horse carriage, $1\frac{1}{2}$ dollar; a two-horse carriage, 1 dollar; a four-horse waggon, $62\frac{1}{2}$ cents; a two-horse waggon, $37\frac{1}{2}$; a gig, $36\frac{1}{2}$; a horse, $18\frac{1}{2}$; a man, 6 $\frac{1}{2}$. The toll of 1810 amounted to 9000 dollars. The interest of the stock has risen to eight per cent. After the lapse of 60 years, the corporation will be dissolved; and the bridge become the property of the United States.

It was an unfortunate circumstance, that, in planning this city, some provision was not made for preserving the fine trees which covered the soil, in those situations where they would have been useful or ornamental. The whole of the natural wood has been cut down, and its place is very poorly supplied by some few Lombardy poplars, which afford neither shade nor shelter. This is an error which nothing but time can repair.

The patent office is under the direction of Dr. Thornton, a native of the West Indies, now a citizen of the United States, who has a salary of 2000 dollars per annum. To obtain a patent for an art or machine, the inventor, if a citizen of the United States, declares upon oath, before a justice of the county where he resides, that he believes himself to be the true inventor; and he gives a description of this art or machine, and the use to which it is applied, accompanied, if necessary, with a drawing, in a letter addressed to the secretary of state of the United States; and this description is inserted in the patent, for which the sum of 30 dollars is paid to the

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treasury department. If the applicant is not a citizen of the United States, he must declare on oath, that he has resided therein more than two years. The copy-right of books, prints, maps, &c. is secured by depositing a copy thereof in the clerk's office of the district court, where the author or proprietor resides. This is recorded and published in one or more newspapers, during four weeks, commencing within two months of the date of the record. The right is thus secured, for the space of 14 years, to the citizens or residents of the United States; and by a renewal of those formalities, it is extended to their executors, administrators, and assigns, for another term of 14 years. The patents issued from the 1st of August, 1790, to the 1st of January, 1805, were 598; and the amount received at the treasury department for patents, from 1801 to 1809 inclusive, was upwards of 27,000 dollars.

Exclusive of the bank of the United States, there are seven banks in the district of Columbia. The Marine Insurance Company of Alexandria was incorporated in 1789, with the power of having a capital of 12,500 shares, at 20 dollars a share, or 250,000 dollars.

By an act of the city council, in December, 1804, the public schools of the city are placed under the direction of a board of thirteen trustees, seven of whom are elected annually by the joint ballot of the council, and six by individuals who contribute to the support of the schools. The net proceeds of taxes on slaves and dogs, of licences for carriages, and hacks for ordinaries and taverns, for selling wines and spirits, for billiard tables, for hawkers, and pedlars, for theatrical and other public amusements, are employed for the education of the poor of the city.

There are two academies in the city, under the direction of the corporation, which were established by the voluntary contributions of the inhabitants, and are supported by the corporation. In these two seminaries there are generally from 120 to 150 scholars, including those who pay for their tuition. The houses are large and commodious, and were intended to be the germ of a national university, in conformity to the plan described in the last will of general Washington. There are,

besides, twelve or more schools in different parts of the city, where the terms of tuition are under five dollars per quarter.

The catholic college of Georgetown, which was erected, and is supported, by subscription, commenced in the year 1790, under the direction of the incorporated catholic clergy of the state of Maryland. It is a fine brick building, consisting of three stories, in length 153 feet, and 33 in breadth, and is fitted for the reception of 200 students. The terms of tuition are as follows: Students above twelve years of age pay 250 dollars; and under that age, 200; those who attend the classes pay 250, owing to extraordinary expences, and some particular indulgencies. The payments are made half-yearly in advance. To be admitted as a pensioner, the student must be a Roman catholic. If a protestant, he boards in a house convenient to the college, where he enjoys equal advantages with the catholic, except as to admission to the instruction and exercises of the Roman religion. The students are instructed in the English, French, Latin, and Greek languages; in geography, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and the different branches of classical education. Public examinations are held four times a year.

A free school has been lately established by subscription, to be conducted according to the plan of Mr. Lancaster, who has engaged to send two masters from England for its superintendence and direction.

A public library has been lately established, by the subscription of 200 individuals, at twelve dollars each; and the directors of this association have obtained an act of incorporation, with powers suitable to the direction of the establishment. Mr. Boyle, a painter from Baltimore, collects objects of natural history, to form a museum.

There is no reading-room at Washington, which is perhaps owing to the profusion of newspapers received there by members of congress, from all parts of the Union. In 1817, seven newspapers were published in the district. In one of these, the *National Intelligencer*, the acts, and sometimes the opinions, of the government are first communicated to the public; and it is owing to this circumstance, that, in Europe, it is ge-

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nerally considered as the organ of the executive authority. This paper is published thrice a week. Other two are on the same scale: two appear weekly, and two daily.

Of societies there are, the Humane Society, the Washington Whig Society, two mason lodges, the Columbian Institute founded in 1817, and the Columbian Agricultural Society. This last consists of 200 members, who pay one dollar a year each, which is expended in premiums for the best cattle, cloth, flannels, stockings, carpets, &c. The American Society for Colonising Free People of Colour was established in the end of 1816. Its object is to procure a situation on the western coast of Africa, to which free people of colour may, with their own consent, be transported.

There are different sects, and a great variety of religious opinions, but no dissension. The annual salary of a clergyman at Washington is about 1000 dollars, with a small mansion and lot of land,—a provision which is said to be inadequate to the support of a family; and it is probably owing to this circumstance, that two clergymen, the one a presbyterian, and the other a baptist, have clerkships in the treasury department. The laws of Virginia and Maryland, in relation to the clergy, admit of no external badge or distinction of their order in the ordinary intercourse of life, but only in the exercise of their sacred functions in their respective places of divine worship. Elsewhere, and at other times, it is as impossible to distinguish them from the crowd, as to recognize their places of worship, which are without steeple, cross, bell, or other distinctive sign of religious appropriation. By an act of December, 1792, for the suppression of vice, and punishing the disturbers of religious worship, persons offending in those respects are liable to fine and imprisonment, and to be bound over to good behaviour. For profane swearing and drunkenness, the penalty is 83 cents; and for labouring on Sunday, 1 dollar and 75 cents, applicable to all persons, and especially to apprentices, servants, and slaves. For adultery (of which there is scarcely an example) the punishment is 20 dollars; for fornication (which is too common) one half of this sum.

In 1815, there were in Washington nine physicians, and two apothecaries, who were also physicians; their fee in the city is a dollar a visit; in the country it is regulated by the distance.

Georgetown is finely situated on the north-east side of the Patomak river. It is divided from Washington by Rock creek, over which there are two bridges. The distance of Georgetown from Alexandria is ten miles; and there is a daily communication between these two places by means of a packet-boat.

In 1810, the population of Georgetown was upwards of 7000. Some trade has been carried on between this port and the West Indies. Mr. Scott, in his Geographical Dictionary, informs us, that the exports of 1794 amounted to 128,924 dollars. Flour and other articles are transported to Alexandria in vessels which do not draw more than nine feet water.

The houses of Georgetown, which are chiefly of brick, have a neat appearance. Several were built before the streets were formed, which gave rise to an observation from a French lady, that Georgetown had houses without streets,—Washington streets without houses. The bank is a neat building. The churches, under the direction of trustees, are plain and without ornament.

Alexandria may be considered the port of Washington, from which it is distant only about seven miles. It was formerly named Belhaven, and is pleasantly situated on the Virginia, or west side of the river Patomak. The streets, like those of Philadelphia, run in straight lines, and intersect each other at right angles. The houses are of a neat construction. Those erected at the expence of the public are, an episcopal church, an academy, court-house, bank, and jail. Alexandria has carried on a considerable commerce with New Orleans, and also with the East and West Indies, and some European ports. The warehouses and wharfs are very commodious. Vessels of 500 tons lie in the basons. Some have sailed from this port with 1200 hogsheads of tobacco on board.

There have been many failures among the principal merchants of this place, in consequence of losses abroad, or unfor-

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Manufactures are yet in their infancy. Two manufactories of cut nails have been lately established, and several of woollen and other cloths. House rent is cheap, for, except along the basons, it is not more than six per cent., and in some places not half that sum. By a census taken in 1817, the inhabitants were found to be,—whites, 5513; blacks, 2646, (of whom 1047 were free.) Total, 8159. In this year a lottery was authorised by congress, to raise funds for building a penitentiary, a city-hall, and two Lancastrian schools.

There are already five churches, protestant, presbyterian, catholic, methodist, and baptist. In the academy there are 40 scholars, 35 of whom learn Latin and classical literature, and 21 reading, writing, and arithmetic. There are nine or ten physicians, but there is no medical society. Any person may exercise this profession. In the town the usual fee is a dollar per visit; and five dollars to and within the distance of ten miles.

Having noticed Alexandria and Géorgetown, which may justly be considered as appendages to Washington, we will now return to the description of this city.

The celebrated Moore has humourously described the federal city:

‘This famed metropolis, where fancy sees
Squares in morasses, obelisks in trees.’

And even Mr. Mellish, who panegyrises every thing American, says, ‘Being told that we were entering Washington city, I continued looking for the houses for some little time; but seeing none, I thought I had misunderstood the gentleman who made the remark, and turning round for an explanation, he told me, laughing, that we were almost in the very middle of it, and asked if I did not see the capitol a little before us. I did, indeed, see a stately edifice, but no other appearance of a city. Soon after this, the stage stopped, at Steele’s hotel, nearly opposite the capitol, where I took lodgings.’

However, this city is not so despicable as has been represented; though its increase cannot be rapid. 'Here,' observes an English traveller, 'is fine natural scenery, but no decidedly great natural advantages; little external commerce, a barren soil, a scanty population, enfeebled too by the deadly weight of absolute slavery, and no direct means of communication with the western country. For the apparently injudicious selection of such a spot; upon which to raise the capital of a great nation, several reasons are given. Some have even gone so far as to attribute to general Washington the influence of pecuniary interest, his property being in the neighbourhood. But the most common argument adduced in support of the choice is that it is central, or rather that it *was* so; for the recent addition of new states has removed the centre very far west, so much so indeed, that the inhabitants of Lexington affirm, that *their* town must on that ground soon become the capital; and even the people of St. Louis, in the Missouri, put in their claim, that city being said to be geographically the exact centre of the Union. But assuming that Washington were central, I do not see much validity in the argument;—at least if we are to be influenced in our judgment by any country in the old world—where is the important nation whose capital is placed exactly in the centre of its dominions? Spain is perhaps the only country which can be adduced, and no very favourable conclusion can be drawn from such an instance: though unquestionably if rivers and soil, if roads and canals, all united to recommend that situation, it would be in some other respects extremely convenient; but this not being the case, the knowledge of Euclid must be dispensed with for something of more practical, though perhaps more vulgar utility.

* There may be other objections to this capital: among them I would venture to suggest, that the legislators and rulers of a nation ought to reside in that city which has the most direct communication with all parts of their country, and of the world at large; they ought to see with their own eyes, and hear with their own ears, without which, though possessed of the best intentions, they must often be in error. News-

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paper communications, letters, and agents, are but substitutes, and sometimes very poor ones; besides which, I conceive that mere expedients should not be admitted in national legislation. Unless the city increases with a rapidity un sanctioned by the most sanguine anticipation, the American law-makers will be half a century behind what they would become by a residence in New York or Philadelphia. Another objection to Washington may suggest itself to some minds, in its neighbourhood to Virginia. The "Virginian dynasty," as it has been called, is a subject of general, and I think very just complaint throughout other parts of America. This state has supplied four of the five presidents, and also a liberal number of occupants of every other government office. The Virginians very modestly assert, that this monopoly does not proceed from corrupt influence, but is a consequence of the buoyancy and vigour of their natural talent. Without entering into the controversy, whether or not seventeen states can supply a degree of ability equal to that of Virginia single-handed, I must express my want of respect for a state in which every man is either a slave-holder, or a defender of slavery—a state in which landed property is not attachable for debt—a state in which human beings are sold in the streets by the public auctioneer, are flogged without trial at the mercy of their owner or his agents, and are killed almost without punishment;—yet these men dare to call themselves democrats, and friends of liberty!—from such democrats, and such friends of liberty, good Lord deliver us!

A late intelligent traveller, (lieutenant Hall,) speaking of the city and the proposed university, says, 'The plan supposes an immense growth; but even if this were attainable, it seems doubtful how far an overgrown luxurious capital would be the fittest seat for learning, or even legislation. Perhaps the true interest of the Union would rather hold Washington sacred to science, philosophy, and the arts; a spot in some degree kept holy from commercial avarice, to which the members of the different states may retire to breathe an atmosphere untainted with local prejudices, and find golden leisure for pursuits and speculations of public utility. Such fancies would

be day dreams elsewhere, and are so perhaps here; but America is young in the career of knowledge; she has the light of former ages, and the sufferings of the present to guide her; she has not crushed the spirits of the many to build up the tyranny of the few, and the eye of imagination may dwell upon her smilingly.

The ground of Washington was originally the property of private individuals, who, by an arrangement with the government, ceded one half to the public, in consideration of the enhanced price of the other, by virtue of this cession. Four thousand five hundred lots, each containing 6265 superficial feet, are the property of the nation, and have been estimated at 1,500,000 dollars. Some of these lots have been sold at 45 cents per foot, though the common price is from 8 to 15 cents, depending on the advantages of situation. Near the centre market several have been purchased at 25 cents. The original price of lots was from 200 to 800 dollars each, which shows that their value has considerably diminished. This has been owing to different causes, and particularly to the project of some eastern members of congress to transfer the seat of government to some other place. The value of this property has also suffered by litigation. In 1804, several purchasers refused to pay to the commissioners of the government the sums stipulated in the deed of sale, which were to be discharged, according to agreement, at certain fixed dates. In consequence of this refusal, the commissioners ordered the lots to be sold to the highest bidder, and they were repurchased by the former proprietors for one-tenth of the original cost; by which circumstance the government experienced a loss of 70,000 dollars. The supreme court, to whom the case was submitted, decided in favour of the proprietors, alleging, that, as a remedy had been sought in the sale of the lots, the government could not have recourse to another, and it also became responsible for the expences of the law-suit, amounting to 2000 dollars. The proprietors united in support of their mutual interests, which were defended by the ablest lawyers, except the attorney-general, who stood alone in the behalf of the government.

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A house, consisting of three stories, 26 feet in front, and 40 feet deep, completely finished, costs from 4000 to 6000 dollars. A house of two stories, of the same length and breadth, is valued at from 3000 to 4000 dollars.

The rate of house-rent is proportioned to the expence of the materials of its construction, and the advantages of its situation. Bricks cost from $5\frac{1}{2}$ to $6\frac{1}{2}$ dollars per thousand. Their dimensions, as fixed by an act of the corporation, are $9\frac{1}{2}$, $4\frac{1}{2}$, $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

Calcareous stone, of a bluish colour, is brought from the neighbourhood of Georgetown, and purchased at a cheap rate. Unslacked lime costs from 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ dollars per barrel. Wood is cheap: pine and oak are brought from the eastern shore of the Chesapeake. A good bricklayer is paid at the rate of three dollars for every thousand bricks. Some of the houses are covered with slate, though generally with boards, called shingles, the use of which ought to be prohibited, on account of their combustible nature. Wood is chiefly employed for fuel, and oak and hickory are preferred, which are sold at the rate of four dollars per cord, except during an unusually severe winter, when the price has been from six to seven dollars. By an act of the corporation, a cord of wood must be eight feet in length, four in breadth, and 'well stowed and packed.' A good dray-horse can be purchased at Washington for 60, a saddle-horse for 130, and a milch-cow for 35 dollars.

The whole exports for the district of Columbia, for the year ending 30th September, 1817, were 1,768,658 dollars, of which 1,689,102 were domestic produce, and 79,556 foreign.

The inhabitants of Washington are social and hospitable. Respectable strangers, after the slightest introduction, are invited to dinner, tea, balls, and evening parties. Tea parties have become very expensive, as not only tea, but coffee, negus, cakes, sweetmeats, iced creams, wines, and liquors, are often presented; and, in a sultry summer evening, are found too palatable to be refused. In winter, there is a succession of family balls, where all this species of luxury is exhibited.

Both sexes, whether on horseback or on foot, wear an umbrella in all seasons: in summer, to keep off the sun-beams;

in winter, as a shelter from the rain and snow; in spring and autumn, to intercept the dews of the evening. Persons of all ranks canter their horses, which movement fatigues the animal, and has an ungraceful appearance. At dinner, and at tea parties, the ladies sit together, and seldom mix with the gentlemen, whose conversation naturally turns upon political subjects. In almost all houses toddy is offered to guests a few minutes before dinner. Gentlemen wear the hat in a carriage with a lady as in England. Any particular attention to a lady is readily construed into an intention of marriage. Boarders in boarding-houses, or in taverns, sometimes throw off the coat during the heat of summer; and in winter the shoes, for the purpose of warming the feet at the fire; customs which the climate only can excuse. In summer, invitation to tea parties is made verbally by a servant, the same day the party is given; in winter, the invitation is more ceremonious. The barber arrives on horseback to perform the operation of shaving; and here, as in Europe, he is the organ of all news and scandal.

On the subject of manners, Mr. Fearon says, 'Tea parties, and private balls, are now very frequent. Mr. Bagot, the English ambassador, and his lady, are particularly assiduous in their attentions to all classes, and maintain a strict conformity with the habits of the place. Their cards of invitation are left at my boarding-house for different gentlemen every day. The speaker (Mr. Clay) gives public periodical dinners. A drawing-room is held weekly at the president's house: it is generally crowded. There is little or no difficulty in getting introduced on these occasions. Mr. Munroe is a very plain, practical man of business. The custom is shaking, and not the degrading one of kissing hands. Conversation, tea, ice, music, chewing tobacco, and excessive spitting, afford employment for the evening. The dress of the ladies is very elegant, though that of the gentlemen is too frequently rather ungentlemanly.

'The theatre is a miserable building. I have attended several representations in it by the same company which I saw when in Pittsburgh. Incledon has been here—the Washington critics think him too vulgar, and also an indifferent singer!

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'In this city I witnessed also the exhibitions of *Sema Sama*, the Indian juggler, from London. My chief attention was directed to the audience; their disbelief of the possibility of performing the numerous feats advertised, and their inconceivable astonishment at witnessing the actual achievement, appeared extreme,—approaching almost to childish wonder and astonishment.

'The few private families to which I have had introductions, do not evince a more accurate knowledge of that English word *comfort* than I have remarked elsewhere; indeed, I would class them a century inferior to Boston, and half a century behind New York. The boarding-houses and inns partake of the same characteristics. I first applied at the chief, which is Davis's Indian Queen tavern: most of the door-handles are broken; the floor of the coffee-room is strewn with bricks and mortar, caused by the crumbling of the ceiling; and the character of the accommodations is in unison with this unorganised state of things: the charges are as high as at the very first London hotel.'

In the summer of 1814, this metropolis was taken possession of by an English naval and land force, which set fire to the capitol, president's house, public offices, and navy-yard. The moveable property destroyed at the latter place has been estimated at 417,748 dollars; the loss sustained in buildings and fixtures at 91,425; the expences of rebuilding at 62,370; in all, 571,538 dollars. The loss sustained by the partial destruction of the capitol, president's house, and other public edifices, has been estimated at 460,000 dollars; in all, 1,031,538 dollars. The superintendent of the public buildings, in his report, dated the 29th of October, 1814, gave the following statement of their cost down to the date of their destruction:—

North wing of the capitol, including the foundation walls of both wings, and of the centre or main building, and of alterations and repairs,	457,388 dollars.
South wing of the capitol,	329,774
President's house,	334,334
Public offices,	93,613
Total,	1,215,109 dollars.

'Upon a second visit to the capitol,' says Mr. Fearon, 'I explored nearly all its recesses. Marks of the late conflagration are still very apparent, while the walls bear evidence of public opinion in relation to that transaction, which seems to have had the singular fate of casting disgrace upon both the Americans and British. Some of the pencil drawings exhibit the military commander hanging upon a tree; others represent the president running off without his hat or wig; some, admiral Cockburn robbing hen-roosts: to which are added such inscriptions as, "The capital of the Union lost by cowardice;" "Curse cowards;" "A—— sold the city for 5000 dollars;" "James Madison is a rascal, a coward, and a fool;" "Ask no questions," &c.'

An English emigrant, in a letter to the editor, after reprobating in severe terms the Gothic barbarity of general Ross, exultingly observes, that the Englishmen employed in repairing the damages he effected were nearly as numerous as those that followed him.

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A
GENERAL VIEW
OF THE
PRESENT STATE AND RESOURCES
OF THE
UNITED STATES.

OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE enumeration or census of the inhabitants is made every ten years. The heads of families, or free persons of sixteen years of age, are obliged to render a true account, on pain of forfeiting the sum of twenty dollars; and as a check upon the returns, a schedule of the local enumeration is exhibited in some public place. A return is made, on oath, to the secretary of state of the United States; and a copy is filed by the clerks of the districts, or of the superior courts. Neglect of duty, or misrepresentation on the part of the marshal or secretary, is punished by a fine of 800 dollars; on that of the assistant, 200. The act providing for the last census (1810) allowed nine months for its execution, commencing the 1st of August of the same year, which was afterwards extended to eleven months. The whole expence of the enumeration has been estimated at 40,000 dollars.

The following estimate of the population of the British American colonies in 1753, inserted in Marshall's Life of Washington, was deduced from militia rolls, poll taxes, bills of mortality, and other documents considered as correct.

VIEW OF THE

Nova Scotia, - - -	5,000 inhabitants.
New Hampshire, - -	30,000
Massachusetts Bay, -	220,000
Rhode Island, - - -	35,000
Connecticut, - - -	100,000
New York, - - -	100,000
The Jerseys, - - -	60,000
Pennsylvania and Delaware,	250,000
Maryland, - - -	85,000
Virginia, - - -	85,000
North Carolina, - -	45,000
South Carolina, - -	30,000
Georgia, - - -	6,000
Total, - - -	1,051,000

The population of the United States territory, at different periods, was as follows: In 1753, 1,051,000; in 1780, 2,051,000; in 1790, 3,929,326; in 1800, 5,308,666; in 1810, 7,239,903. The increase in the first ten years was 1,878,326; in the second, 1,379,340; of the last, 1,931,237. It appears that the population has more than doubled every twenty years since the period of the first American establishments. According to the enumeration of 1810, there were—

	Males.	Females.	Difference.
Free whites, under 10 years of age,	1,035,278	981,426	53,852
of 10, and under 16,	468,183	448,324	19,859
of 16, and under 26,	547,597	561,668	14,071
of 26, and under 45,	572,347	544,156	28,191
of 45, and upwards,	364,736	338,378	26,358
The number of free people of colour is stated to be			186,446
The number of slaves,			1,191,364

In Europe, generally, the proportion of marriages to the population has been estimated at 1 to 120; that of births, 1 to 27; and that of deaths, 1 to 30. In the United States, the marriages are as 1 to 30; the births as 1 to 20; and the deaths as 1 to 40. The yearly births have been estimated at 5½ per 100; the yearly deaths at 2¼ per 100. The popula-

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tion of the city of New York was ascertained with great exactness in 1805, and the number of male white inhabitants was 35,394; of females, 36,978. The annual augmentation of slaves is about $2\frac{1}{2}$ per 100. Of 7,239,903, the whole population in 1810, 1,191,364 were slaves, and 186,446 free persons of colour. The slaves belong chiefly to Maryland, Virginia, Carolina, Georgia, and Kentucky, in which states, taken collectively, they form nearly one-third of the population. In Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Vermont, there are no slaves, and very few in Rhode Island and Connecticut. By the last census, there were but 108 in the former, and 310 in the latter place.

The whole number of slaves, in 1800, was	896,849
In 1810,	1,191,364
Increase in ten years,	294,515

It appears from the different enumerations made according to the population acts of congress, that the increase is at the rate of three per cent. per annum; in other words, that the population doubles every 23 years; and it is probable that it will preserve this rate of increase for a hundred years and more, owing to the immense extent of country yet unpeopled. In 1810, it amounted in round numbers to 7,000,000; in 1833, it will be 14,000,000; in 1856, 28,000,000; in 1879, 56,000,000; in 1902, 112,000,000; in 1925, 224,000,000. This last number, scattered over a territory of 3,000,000 of square miles, would average about 70 to each mile, a population similar to that of Massachusetts proper, and about the average of Europe.

ON THE STATE OF EDUCATION, KNOWLEDGE, AND THE ARTS.

The progress of the Americans has been greater in the useful arts than in the fine arts, or the sciences, though their advances in the latter are respectable, considering the shortness of their career. The state of knowledge and education generally have been mentioned in the course of the work.

The education of youth, which is so essential to the well-being of society, and to the developement of national wealth, has always been a primary object of public attention in the United States. Since the year 1800, especially, great additions have been made to the number of schools and academical institutions; to the funds for supporting them, and to all the means for providing instruction, and disseminating information. In 1809, the number of colleges had increased to 25, that of academies to 74. Those institutions are incorporated by the legislature of each state, and are subject to its inspection, though placed respectively under the direction of boards of trustees.

In the western states congress have reserved 640 acres of the public land in each township for the support of schools, besides seven entire townships of 23,040 acres each, two of which are situated in the state of Ohio, and one in each of the states and territories of Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Mississippi, and Louisiana. In the state of New York, in 1811, the fund for common schools, subject to the disposal of the legislature, amounted to half a million of dollars, giving an annual revenue of 36,000 dollars. The school fund of the state of Connecticut amounts at present to a very large sum.— Since the year 1800 the number of American students of medicine, graduating in foreign countries, has considerably diminished, the medical schools of Philadelphia and New York having acquired a high reputation. The period of college study is four years. Several medical journals are published at Philadelphia, New York, Boston, and Baltimore; and there are American editions of the most celebrated medical works of Europe. New publications of celebrity, in all departments of literature, are immediately republished; and a quarto volume, which costs two guineas in London, may be purchased in America, in a neat octavo form, for the same number of dollars. The Edinburgh and Quarterly Reviews are regularly republished, and circulated to a great extent. Throughout the New England States the schools are supported by a public tax, and are under the direction of a committee. In these seminaries the poor and the rich are educated together, and are

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taught reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, and geography. In other parts of the Union also, schools are provided for the education of the poorer class. The system of Lancaster has been lately adopted in different places. Various societies have been lately established for the advancement of knowledge; particularly of those branches which are connected with agriculture, arts, and manufactures. The American Philosophical Society at Philadelphia has already published six volumes on scientific subjects. An Athenæum, on the plan of that of Liverpool, has been lately established at Boston. In the space of ten days a subscription of 40,000 dollars was collected for the use of this establishment. The American Academy of Arts and Sciences at Boston has published one volume of Transactions. The New York Society for the promotion of agriculture, arts, and manufactures, has published four volumes. The Philadelphia Society for promoting agriculture has published two. The Georgetown Society has published one on husbandry and rural affairs.

The Americans have already given proofs of a taste for painting. The names of West, Copely, Trumbull, Stewart, Vanderlyn, Jarvis, Wood, Allston, Leslie, Peale, Sully, Morse, Earle, and Todd, the first eight historical and landscape, the last portrait painters, are well known in Europe. Academies for the cultivation of the fine arts have been lately established at Philadelphia and New York. Plaster casts of the principal antique statues, with a few pictures, have been procured from Paris for both institutions. Those of the latter were presented by the emperor Napoleon, on his being appointed a member. The liberal spirit which fosters these establishments does great honour to citizens, most of whom are merchants.

The museum at Philadelphia has been lately enriched with a variety of objects in natural history, of which the most striking is the skeleton of the mammoth. Within a few years the soil and productions of the United States have become the subject of philosophical research, and lectures on chemistry, mineralogy, and botany, are delivered in the cities of Philadelphia, New York, and Boston.

The number of copies which are sold of public works of various kinds affords one of the most striking proofs of the progress of knowledge; and the newspaper press is the great organ of communication in America. In this description of literature the United States are entitled to take precedence of all other countries, at least so far as relates to number. In the beginning of the year 1810 there were 264 newspapers in the United States, 25 of which were printed daily, 16 three a week, 33 twice, and 262 weekly. Before the American revolution there were but nine newspapers in the United States. In the state of New York there are 100 printing establishments, and 70 gazettes. The annual aggregate amount of newspapers is estimated at 25,200,000. The following table will show the number in each state:

New Hampshire,	-	12	North Carolina,	-	10
Massachusetts,	-	38	South Carolina,	-	10
Rhode Island,	-	7	Georgia,	-	13
Connecticut,	-	11	Kentucky,	-	17
Vermont,	-	14	Tennessee,	-	6
New York,	-	66	Ohio,	-	14
Pennsylvania,	-	71	District of Columbia,	-	4
Delaware,	-	2	Indiana territory,	-	1
Maryland,	-	21	Mississippi do.	-	1
New Jersey,	-	8	Orleans,	-	10
Virginia,	-	24	Louisiana,	-	1

In the month of May, 1817, the whole number of newspapers in the United States was about 500, the number printed weekly, 250,000.

In 1792, the whole number of newspapers in Great Britain and Ireland was 213.

The expeditions under Lewis and Clarke, and major Pike, have made valuable additions to geography; and the vessel now (May, 1819) ready to sail on a voyage of discovery, shews the anxiety of the government to promote the interests of science. The congress has also ordered a trigonometrical and maritime survey of the American coast.

In mechanics the Americans have been particularly inventive. The number of patents issued at the patent office, from

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the 1st of January, 1812, to the 1st of January, 1813, amounted to 235. The machinery of flour-mills has several ingenious contrivances not known in Europe. The machines for making cotton cards, and for the manufacture of nails, are no less useful to the country than creditable to the inventors. Two Americans are candidates for the prize of a million of francs, offered by the French government for the best machine for spinning flax. The saving of manual labour by one of the American machines is said to be four-fifths, but the conditions of the prize require nine-tenths. The ginning machine, for separating cotton from the seed, has been of incalculable value in reducing the cost of cotton by a vast saving of manual labour. The method employed of lighting the interior of American merchant vessels, and vessels of war, by means of cylinders of glass placed in the deck, is found to be very useful at sea. A new apparatus for the distillation of salt water on board of vessels at sea, invented by major Lamb of New York, has been found so superior to the contrivances formerly in use, that it has been adopted by the English navy board for the public ships. The American machinery for making boots and shoes by means of iron wire or nails has been lately employed in England; and an idea may be formed of its economical advantages from the circumstance of its being able to furnish a pair of shoes in a quarter of an hour.

Perhaps, of all the American inventions, the application of steam to inland navigation is the most splendid, and promises to be the most useful, especially to the country which gave it birth. Steam-boats now ply on the Hudson, Delaware, Patomak, Savannah, Ohio, Mississippi, and nearly all the other navigable streams in the United States. Boats of 130 feet in length, and 30 to 50 in breadth, are propelled at the rate of eight or ten miles an hour in still water. The slowness of navigation on the great rivers by sails and oars renders the steam-boat invaluable. Among other purposes, it is employed to tow large vessels against the wind and current, and it is used as a ferry-boat at New York and other ports. The steam frigate, constructed at New York according to the plan of the late Mr. Fulton, is 145 feet long, 55 feet broad, and

has an engine of 120 horse power, moving with a velocity backwards or forwards at the rate of three miles and a half an hour. The wheel is placed in the centre, and is protected by the sides, which are six feet in thickness; in other parts they are four and a half. This frigate is to carry 80 cannon, and is considered as impregnable. The steam-engine of Evans, now employed in the United States, is considered both more economical and more simple than that of Watt and Bolton.

The Americans excel in the erection of bridges; and in ship-building they are now decidedly superior to the European nations, even to those most renowned for skill in maritime affairs. Their public buildings are not numerous, because they are yet but young as a nation. Even foreigners admit, however, that the capitol at Washington, the bank of Pennsylvania, and the city-hall of New York, are very fine edifices. The last was lately finished, and cost 538,000 dollars. The coin of the United States rivals that of France or of England in neatness of execution.

Dramatic exhibitions have made a rapid progress in the United States within the last ten years. Twenty years ago, great struggles were made against this species of recreation. The clergy of various denominations petitioned several state legislatures to suppress theatrical amusements, as immoral and profane. In Connecticut this opposition had complete success. The principal theatre of that state, in the city of Hartford, was converted into a church, and actors are still subject to excommunication. In Massachusetts the church and the stage for a long time maintained a doubtful struggle. Plays were interdicted, but recitations or lectures were allowed; and the players, obliged to accommodate their proceedings to this absurd restriction, announced plays under the name of lectures. Thus a tragedy or comedy was advertised in such terms as these: 'A Moral Lecture; the affecting History of Jane Shore, as narrated in dialogue by the celebrated Rowe;' 'The entertaining tale of the Poor Soldier, as told in song and dialogue by the facetious O'Keefe.' By a spirited effort, however, in the legislature, the laws against plays were abolished; and a theatre was erected in Boston in the year 1798. About

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1808, great improvements were made in the style of building and decoration in the American theatres, which began then to rival the theatres of the old world.

All the best new pieces on the British stage are transmitted to America with great rapidity; and in dresses, decorations, and style of criticism, a great similarity obtains between the two countries. There are slight differences, however, in the customs of the audience. Ladies and gentlemen are never expected, as a point of etiquette, to wear full dress in the best boxes. It is usual for females to sit in the pit in the southern states, but in the northern and middle states they are never permitted to be seen there. The passion for spectacle, and for the exhibition of horses and elephants on the stage, is as prevalent in America as in London. In propriety of decoration and costume the Americans are particularly defective; they dress with great splendour, but seldom correctly. The late celebrated Mr. Cooke, who died in America, remarked that the Americans timed their applauses better than any people in the world. With respect to original plays they are very deficient; and, indeed, this species of production cannot be expected to thrive in a country where all the branches of authorship lie under great discouragement. Besides, the managers can procure plays without difficulty from England, and have nothing to pay for the copyright; yet many plays have been written and acted with success in America.

The pay of authors is governed by the same rules as in England, but there is a great preference given to plays from the mother-country; and the sterling dramas of the English stage, especially the works of Shakespeare, seldom fail to bring full houses. The celebrated actors on the American stage have almost exclusively emigrated from England. The first of any decided reputation was the late Mr. Hodgkinson, originally from Bath, who was excellent in every variety of the scene, from the highest tragedy to the lowest farce. The late Mrs. Warren, celebrated as Miss Brunton in Covent-Garden, was the female wonder of tragedy in America for many years; and two comedians, lately deceased, by the names of Twaits and Harwood, were long at the head of the comic department.

Mr. Fennel was a very deserving tragedian, and for some years contested the palm of superiority with Mr. Cooper, who remained master of the field, and at present takes the lead in the American drama. Mr. Jefferson, Mr. Blissot, Mr. Bernards, Mrs. Hilson, and Mrs. Darby, all from England, also enjoy a high rank at present on the American boards. Mr. John Howard Payne, the young tragedian known in Europe and America under the title of the American Roscius, is the only native who has ever enjoyed a very high degree of success. His first appearance at New York, February 24, 1809, at the age of sixteen, produced an effect equalled by a similar debut a short time before in England. The pay given to the best regularly engaged actors does not exceed from 30 to 40 dollars per week. The benefits of such performers may produce them from 800 to 1500 dollars in addition. Mr. Cooper receives 125 dollars weekly, and half the profits of every seventh night, on his regular engagement at New York. When he travels, of course the profits vary with the attraction; sometimes he has received 3000 dollars for thirteen nights' performance. Mr. Howard Payne has gained for 26 successive nights' performance in Philadelphia, Baltimore, and Richmond, above 5000 dollars.

The English language is spoken with as great purity by the different classes of society in America as by the corresponding classes in England; while the strongly-marked dialects of Scotland and England, and even of the English counties, the source of so many barbarisms and corruptions, have no parallel in the United States. A Yorkshire or Lancashire peasant is scarcely intelligible to a Londoner; but in no district of America, not even in the extreme west, where savage and civilized life mingle, is there a language spoken not perfectly intelligible to an English ear.

There are, however, some peculiar phrases in general use, which may properly be called Americanisms. The following is given as a specimen from Mr. Mellish: 'I was diverted,' says he, 'by a dialogue between the two drivers, in which the word *guess* occurred' so frequently, that I could hardly hear any thing else. "I *guess* this string's not long enough."

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"O yes, I *guess* it is." "O yes, I *guess* I'll make it do."
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guess right." But the departure of the learned from the
 pure idioms of the English language is not considerable.
 When the antipathy against this country ran high during the
 American revolution, it was proposed to drop the use of the
 English tongue and chuse another, when a wag recommended
 the adoption of the Hebrew.

Of all foreign countries, it is only in America that the choice
 productions of English genius are sought after and appreciated.
 On the continent of Europe nothing but English works of sci-
 ence and practical utility are extensively known, as in fact it
 is these alone which, in any language, can be thoroughly un-
 derstood by foreigners. Courses of lectures on English litera-
 ture are to this day read in continental universities, in which
 none of the distinguished authors who have appeared within
 the last 50 years are ever mentioned. Long before the title of
 an English work, in some untranslated quotation from a re-
 view, is announced at Leipsig, at Paris, or at Rome, it is re-
 printed at Boston, Philadelphia, or New York, and read on
 the banks of the Ohio or Mississippi. This community of
 language the American ought also to prize as one of his noblest
 privileges, since it affords him access to a literature more ad-
 vanced than his own can be in the nature of things; and if it
 be his first boast that he is the countryman of Washington and
 Franklin, it should be his second, that his forefathers were
 countrymen of Shakespeare and Milton, and 'that Chatham's
 language is his mother-tongue.'

MANNERS AND HABITS.

The people of the United States have not that uniform cha-
 racter which belongs to ancient nations, upon whom time, and
 the stability of institutions, have imprinted a particular and
 individual character. The general physiognomy is as varied
 as its origin is different. English, Irish, German, Scotch,
 French, and Swiss, all retain something of the first stamp,
 which belongs to their ancient country. A marked distinction,



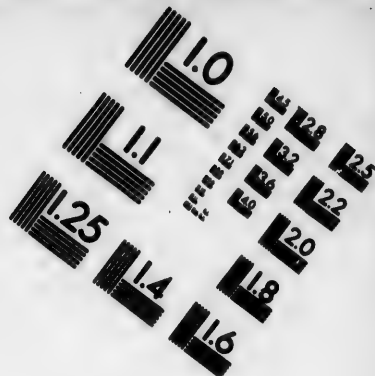
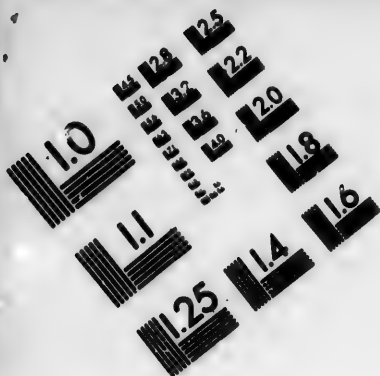
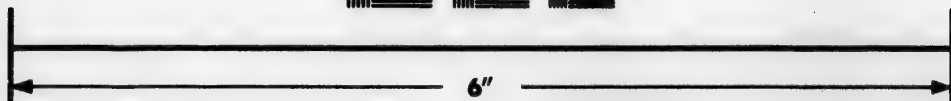
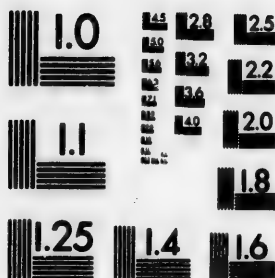


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however, exists between the inhabitants of the maritime and commercial towns, and those of the country. The former perfectly resemble the citizens of the great towns of Europe. They have all the luxury and vices of an advanced civilization. Those of the country, who lead an agricultural life, enjoy all that happiness which is procured from the exercise of the social virtues in their primitive purity. Their affections are constant; felicity crowns the conjugal union; respect for paternal authority is sacred; infidelity on the part of the wife is almost unknown; divorce is rare; mendicity and theft uncommon.

An Englishman may easily be distinguished by his gait and appearance from an American. The latter have a heavy, lounging, indifferent kind of manner, indicative of ease and carelessness. 'Their whole appearance,' says a judicious observer, 'is sallow, and what we should call unhealthy. Our friend D—— tells me that to have colour in the cheeks is an infallible criterion by which to be discovered as an Englishman. In a British town of any importance, you cannot walk along a leading street for half an hour without meeting with almost every variety of size, dress, and appearance among the inhabitants; whilst, on the contrary, here they seem all of one family; and though not quite a "drab-coloured creation," the feelings they excite are not many degrees removed from the uninteresting sensations generated by that expression. The young men are tall, thin, and solemn: their dress is universally trowsers, and very generally loose great coats. Old men, in our English idea of that phrase, appear very rare.'

In such an extensive country, partaking of very different local circumstances, the manners and morals of the community must exhibit a great variety. Generally speaking, every state has its own peculiar features: and the subjects alluded to have been noticed in the view of the various states and territories.

There is a material difference in point of character between the people of the northern states and those to the southward; there also exists a considerable spirit of rivalry, jealousy, and opposition between them. The former (speaking in general terms) are a plain, honest, and industrious people; regular

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in their habits, punctual in their payments, and strongly attached to agricultural and commercial pursuits. But the southern planter acquires his wealth not by the sweat of his brow like the New Englander, but by the labour of his negroes. He lolls at his ease in the shady retreat; drinking, smoking, or sleeping, surrounded by his slaves and overseers, who furnish him with the luxuries of life, without the necessity of his leaving the piazza. The northern merchant, on the contrary, is strenuously exerting himself from morning till night; exercising his faculties, expanding his mind, and enlarging his ideas by continual intercourse with people of every nation, and correspondence in every quarter of the globe. The planter is deprived of these opportunities of mixing with the world, and acquiring an extensive knowledge of the interests of trade. Hence he supposes, that to raise a crop and sell it sufficiently benefits the country; nor can he conceive what difference it will make, whether it is taken away in a ship of his own nation or that of a foreign state. He also looks upon the merchant or trader with contempt, as a mere plodding fellow who is making a fortune by his assistance; he even hates him, when by careful industry and economy the merchant can leave off business, and becomes, by the aid of his superior wealth and abilities, a more important personage in society than himself. Such are, in all probability, the causes which have created the existing spirit of rivalry, jealousy, and opposition, between the northern and southern states; and which, if not quickly extirpated, may one day or other occasion a separation of the Union.

The higher and middling classes of the Americans, who reside chiefly in the large towns or their neighbourhood, live, generally speaking, in a more luxurious manner than the same description of people in England. Not that their tables are more sumptuously furnished on particular occasions than ours; but that their ordinary meals consist of a greater variety of articles, many of which from too frequent use may, perhaps, become pernicious to the constitution. The constant use of cigars by the young men, even from an early age, may also tend to impair the constitution, and create a stimulus beyond

that which nature requires, or is capable of supporting. Their dread of the yellow fever has induced a more frequent use of tobacco of late years; but it is now grown into a habit that will not be easily abandoned. The other classes of the community, who reside in the interior and back part of the country, are often obliged to live upon salt provisions the greatest part of the year, and sometimes on very scanty fare; besides which, they generally dwell in miserable log huts, incapable of defending them effectually from the severity of the weather. Those who have the means of living better are great eaters of animal food, which is introduced at every meal; together with a variety of hot cakes, and a profusion of butter: all which may more or less tend to the introduction of bilious disorders, and perhaps lay the foundation of those diseases which prove fatal in hot climates. The effects of a luxurious or meagre diet are equally injurious to the constitution, and, together with the sudden and violent changes of the climate, may create a series of nervous complaints, consumption, and debility, which in the states bordering on the Atlantic carry off at least one-third of the inhabitants in the prime of life.

The general mode of living for those who do not keep house, is at hotels, taverns, or private boarding-houses. There are generally two public apartments, one for a sitting, the other a dining room. The lady of the house presides; the other ladies, who are boarders, being placed on her left. The hours are,—breakfast, eight o'clock; dinner, half past three; tea, seven; supper, ten. American breakfasts are celebrated for their profusion; presenting eggs, meat of various kinds, fish, and fowls. The charge is usually two dollars per diem, exclusive of wine.

The Americans are much addicted to dissipation. Mechanics and tradesmen swallow daily an enormous quantity of spirits, so that a temperate man will, even in the morning, feel the smell of liquor emitted from almost every person he meets in the streets. Even in the country, peaches grow in such profusion that brandy is made at a small expence; and as almost every house is furnished with a still, inebriation is very common. Those who can resist the temptations to in-

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temperance possess great advantages over their less prudent neighbours.

Mr. Lambert gives the following account of dram-drinking, which he received from general Bradley. '*A gum-tickler* is a gill of spirits, generally rum, taken fasting. *A phlegm-cutter* is a double dose just before breakfast. *An antifogmatic* is a similar dram before dinner. *A gall-breaker* is about half a pint of ardent spirits. When they enquire how such-a-one does; the answer is, "Oh, he is only drinking *gum-ticklers*!" If he is drinking *phlegm-cutters*, or *antifogmatics*, the case is not so good, and he is soon expected to get to *gall-breakers*; but if he is drinking the *latter*, they consider him as a lost sheep,—say it is all over with him,—and pity his desperate case. Indeed, a man seldom lives above six months after he has commenced the *gall-breaking* dram! Rum, brandy, or gin *sling*, is a common beverage for travellers through the States; and the stage-coachmen, in the course of a journey, take "*a special good quantity of it*." Sometimes it consists only of the liquor and water, sweetened with sugar, and drank cold; but in general it is made of milk, with ginger or nutmeg grated into it.'

Another traveller says, that in New York vast quantities of 'Yankee' rum are sold. 'All spirits,' he continues, 'are commonly drunk mixed with cold water, without sugar. The price per glass, at the dirtiest grog-shops, is two-pence, where the liquor is of the most inferior description. At the more respectable, for a superior quality three-pence halfpenny. At what are called taverns and porter-houses, establishments similar to our second-rate public houses, six-pence halfpenny. The size of the glass is half a gill. It is estimated that there are 1500 spirit-shops in this city; a fact opposed to my first impressions of American habits, which, on the point of sobriety, were favourable, judging from the absence of broils and of drunkards in the streets: but more attentive observation, aided by the information of old residents, enables me to state that the quantity of malt-liquor and spirits drunk by the inhabitants of New York, much exceeds the amount consumed by the same extent of English population. The beastly-drun-

hard is a character unknown here; yet but too many are throughout the day under the influence of liquor, or what is not inappropriately termed "half and half!" a state too prevalent among the labouring classes and the negroes. Many date the source of this to the extremes of the climate. Another and a leading cause is, that numbers of the lower orders are European emigrants. They bring their habits with them. They are here better employed and better paid than they were in the country which gave them birth; and they partake too largely of the infirmities of our nature to be provident during the sunshine of prosperity.'

Duels are very frequent throughout the States, and all attempts to prevent them have hitherto failed. At New York, a law was passed to prohibit the sending of challenges, and the fighting of duels, under severe penalties; but it answered no other end than to produce a smart piece of satire on the subject of duels. A slight provocation produces a challenge, and if the parties consider themselves of what is called 'equal standing,' that is, of families and in worldly circumstances of equal respectability, they rarely decline the combat; and the Americans being generally good shots, and as remarkable for their cool deliberation as, too frequently, for deadly malignity, it is seldom that both parties escape with life.

The Americans are uncommonly jealous of their independence; and although this be a useful feeling, its excess is productive of very serious evils. In schools, no species of correction is allowed, subordination being as foreign to the comprehension of the youth as to that of the aged. Servants also feel themselves independent of their employers. This may be attended with some advantages: it may please when contrasted with the degrading slavery of the European world; but it is not free from serious and peculiar evils. It increases selfish feelings and pursuits; it individualizes society, and prevents a development of those social qualities which are of important benefit to, as well as the greatest ornament of our nature.

Servants are usually engaged by the week. Enquiry as to character is not practised. Blacks and whites are seldom kept

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in the same house. In the middle and southern states they are chiefly blacks; and, though held in the most degraded estimation, do almost as they please.

Servants are called 'helps:' if you call them servants they leave you without notice. Englishmen often incur their displeasure by negligence in continuing to use this prohibited word. 'The difference, however,' observes a recent writer, 'would appear merely verbal; for indeed I should misrepresent the impressions I have received on the subject, if I stated that the Americans *really* shewed more feeling, or were more considerate in their conduct towards this class of society than the English: every one who knows them will, I think, pronounce the direct contrary to be the case. A friend of mine, the other day, met with a rebuff at his hotel, which taught him the necessity of altering—not his ideas indeed, but his words. Addressing the female "help," he said, "Be kind enough to tell your mistress that I should be glad to see her." "My *mistress*, Sir! I tell you I have no mistress, nor master either. I will not tell her, Sir, I guess; if you want Mrs. M—you may go to her yourself, I guess. I have no mistress, Sir. In this country there is no mistresses nor masters; I guess I am a woman citizen." The term "boss" is substituted for that of master: but these, I would remark, are not the only instances in this country of the alteration of *names*, while *things* remain the same: indeed some very absurd, and even indelicate changes have been made which cannot well be communicated on paper.'

A traveller to whom we have frequently referred says, 'When the vessel in which I sailed from England had anchored at New York, a boy procured us two hackney coaches, from a distance of about a quarter of a mile. I offered him an English shilling, having no other small coin in my possession. He would not take so little; "For as how I guess it is not of value. I have been *sick* in going to the stand right away." This was said with a tone of independence, which, although displeasing to my pride, was not so to my judgment. Mr. Adams satisfied the young republican by giving him half-a-dollar, (2s. 3d.) There was no sense of having received a

favour in the boy's countenance or manner; a trait of character which, I have since learned, is by no means confined to the youth of America. A simple "I thank you, Sir," would not, however, derogate from a free man's dignity; but I must not be too fastidious. We should not expect every thing; and, after all, even cold independence is preferable to warm servility. Another question, and one of leading importance, suggested itself to me on this occasion; namely, Is not labour here well paid? A great number of people were on the wharf looking at us and our vessel. Many of them were of the labouring class. They were not better clothed than men in a similar condition in England; but they were more erect in their posture, less care-worn in their countenances; the thought of "the morrow" did not seem to form a part of their ideas; and among them there were no beggars.

Funerals are uniformly attended by large walking processions. In the newspapers I have frequently observed advertisements stating the deaths, and inviting all friends to attend the burial. The dead are seldom kept more than two days. At the time appointed, intimate friends enter the house, others assemble outside, and fall into the procession when the body is brought out. Sorrow does not seem depicted in the countenances of any, but few wear mourning, and many smoke segars; none appear chargeable with the hypocrisy described by the poet of "mocking sorrow with a heart not sad."

Fair complexions, regular features, and fine forms, seem to be the prevailing characteristics of the American fair sex. They do not, however, enjoy their beauty for so long a period as English women, neither do they possess the blooming countenance and rosy tinge of health so predominant among our fair countrywomen, whose charms never stand in need of cosmetics. The beauty of the American women partakes more of the *lily* than the *rose*; though the soft glow of the latter is sometimes to be met with. Their climate, however, is not so favourable to beauty as that of England, in consequence of the excessive heat and violent changes of the weather peculiar to America.

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Most travellers who have visited America have charged the ladies of the United States universally with having bad teeth. This accusation is certainly very erroneous when applied to the whole of the fair sex, and to them alone. That the inhabitants of the States are often subject to a premature loss of teeth is allowed by themselves; and the cause has even been discussed in the papers read before the American Philosophical Society; but it does not particularly attach to the females, who are much more exempt from that misfortune than the men.

Dancing is an amusement that the ladies are passionately fond of; and many of them are well accomplished in music and drawing, which they practise with considerable success: but they do not excel in those acquirements, as they do in dancing. Among the young men these accomplishments are but little cultivated.

Marriages are conducted in the most splendid style, and form an important part of the winter's entertainments. For some years it was the fashion to keep them only among a select circle of friends; but of late the opulent parents of the new-married lady have thrown open their doors, and invited the town to partake of their felicity. The young couple, attended by their nearest connexions and friends, are married at home in a magnificent style; and if the parties are episcopalians, a bishop is always procured, if possible; as his presence gives a greater zest to the nuptials. For three days after the marriage ceremony, the new-married couple see company in great state, and every genteel person who can procure an introduction may pay his respects to the bride and bridegroom. It is a sort of levee; and the visitors, after their introduction, partake of a cup of coffee or other refreshments, and walk away. Sometimes the night concludes with a concert and ball, or cards, among those friends and acquaintance who are invited to remain.

A late writer thinks that the ease with which the necessities of life may be obtained, the want of social subordination, and the desire to be independent, conspire to produce some inconveniences in the married life. 'Early marriages,' says

he, 'partly proceed perhaps from this state of things, though the great source of their frequency is certainly in conformity with a well-known theory,—the ease with which the necessities of life can be obtained. Arguments are not wanting in favour of youthful matrimonial engagements; and, without considering the matter in an individual point of view, it certainly contributes to the more rapid advancement of a country requiring population. Yet, strong as such reasons may be, I should, if morally considered, hesitate in bearing my testimony to their solidity. The youth of twenty, and the female of fourteen, are ill fitted for the cares, anxieties, and education of a family: neither their bodily nor mental strength has attained maturity. Those days also which ought to be devoted to the acquirement of solid information, and to the improving, perhaps it may be said, to the creating the character, are necessarily devoted to other objects. The cares of life, under such circumstances, begin to press upon individuals who have not previously had time or opportunity to learn its duties. No provision has been made for the support of a rising family—to *this* therefore every other object will generally be sacrificed: by these means a sordid and calculating spirit is engendered—the more generous feelings of our nature acquire neither strength nor stability; and every mental and ennobling pursuit is abandoned with a view to the getting on in life.

'The American female character requires our attention: in mental pursuits it would appear to be at present but little advanced. This proceeds no doubt from a variety of causes; all that has been said of the male population, by a natural reaction affecting the female also. The demand, too, (if I may be excused a mercantile phrase upon such a subject,) exceeding the supply, together with the comparatively less value set upon domestic comfort, may perhaps have tended to produce the extreme attention to mere personal ornament, and the universal neglect of either mental or domestic knowledge, which appears to exist among the females here, as compared with those of England.'

In the article of cleanliness the American ladies are certainly inferior to Europeans, which may perhaps be owing, not so

much to the want of domestics as to the Englishman's

'After a private conversation, I am now very genteel; but in the kitchen, as I have received her testimony, I think I have pervades the public mind. Such matters may be added, and an ignorance of the principal charms in an error in all I have competent to form.

'Last evening. The furniture was loaded with butter was the children's factions evident from the boy to say master of other. I have—in some instances would seem to rule.'

The women of the French state and the speculation the necessity of

much to the mixture of people from different nations, as to the want of authority over servants, with the laziness in which domestics indulge who set a high value on their services. An Englishman thus describes an American boarding-house:—

‘After a residence of three days at the hotel, I removed to a private boarding-house, in one of the bed-rooms of which I am now writing. The dining-room of this establishment is genteel; but the other apartments, and more particularly the kitchen, are of a kind not much to excite admiration. I perceived here what—unpleasant as may be the discovery, I think I have observed elsewhere, and—worse still, what I fear pervades this new world, an affectation of splendour, or what may be called *style*, in those things which are intended to meet the public eye; with a lamentable want even of cleanliness in such matters as are removed *from* that ordeal. To this may be added, an appearance of uncomfortable extravagance, and an ignorance of that kind of order and neatness which constitute, in the sight of those who have once enjoyed it, the principal charm of domestic life. I should rejoice to find myself in an error in this judgment; but all I have seen myself, and all I have collected from the observation of others most competent to form a correct opinion, tend to its confirmation.

‘Last evening I drank tea at a genteel private house. The furniture was splendid, the table profusely supplied, being loaded with fish, dried beef, and sausages; the bread and butter was roughly cut in huge hunks piled zig-zag. The children’s faces were dirty, their hair uncombed, their dispositions evidently untaught, and all the members of the family, from the boy of six years of age up to the owner (I was going to say master) of the house, appeared *independent* of each other. I have seen the same characteristics in other families—in some indeed decidedly the contrary; but these latter would seem to be the exceptions, and the former the general rule.’

The women in sea-port towns dress very gay, and rather in the French style; but from the high wages paid for labour, and the speculating habits of the merchants, they do not feel the necessity of being industrious equally with Englishwomen.

On the contrary, they are in general idle and careless; and the practice of snuff-taking, and even the disgusting one of chewing tobacco, which is practised by many of the poorer sort, render them objects of aversion to strangers accustomed to the neatness and delicacy of female manners. They also evince a share of that freedom of expression and conduct practised by the men; but which in England would be condemned as extremely gross and improper. This remark will be partially illustrated by the following advertisement, extracted from the 'Kentucky Reporter,' published at Lexington.

'TAKE NOTICE,

'And beware of the swindler JESSE DOUGHERTY, who married me in November last, and some time after marriage informed me that he had another wife alive, and before I recovered, the villain left me, and took one of my best horses—one of my neighbours was so good as to follow him and take the horse from him, and bring him back. The said Dougherty is about forty years of age, five feet ten inches high, round-shouldered, thick lips, complexion and hair dark, grey eyes, remarkably ugly and ill-natured, and very fond of ardent spirits, and by profession a notorious liar. This is therefore to warn all widows to beware of the swindler, as all he wants is their property, and they may go to the devil for him after he gets that. Also, all persons are forewarned from trading with the said Dougherty, with the expectation of receiving pay from my property, as I consider the marriage contract *null and void* agreeably to law: you will therefore pay no attention to any lies he may tell you of his property in this county. The said Dougherty has a number of wives living, perhaps eight or ten, (the number not positively known,) and will no doubt, if he can get them, have eight or ten more. I believe that is the way he makes his living.

'MARY DODD.

'Livingston county, Ky. Sept. 5, 1817.—38 at (ch. W. G.)'

The Americans are evidently destined to become a powerful people, and to exercise a great influence over the councils of Europe. The perception of their growing strength and importance generates a high degree of national vanity, which blazes out on all occasions, in their conversation, newspapers, pamphlets, speeches, and books. They assume it as a self-

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evident fact, that they surpass all other nations in virtue, wisdom, valour, liberty, government, and every other excellence. Europeans they despise, as ignorant paupers and dastardly slaves. On this subject a recent writer thus expresses himself:—

‘There are perhaps no people, not even excepting the French, who are so vain as the Americans; their self-estimation and cool-headed bombast, when speaking of themselves or their country, are quite ludicrous. An anecdote is told of general Moreau, who, at the commencement of the late war with England, was in America: a friend, addressing him, observed that his military talents would be of essential service to the republic. He replied in the negative; adding, that there was not a drummer in the American army who did not think himself equal to general Moreau. This fact will apply to all occupations with an equal degree of faithfulness. Every man here thinks he has arrived at the acmé of perfection; the mechanics themselves possess the same feeling. When at Newark, I was informed that some choice designs in chair-japanning and coach-plating were lately produced by two emigrants; the natives turned upon their heels, “Ay, they guessed them ’ere were fashions they had left off.” Every American considers that it is impossible for a foreigner to teach him any thing, and that his head contains a perfect encyclopædia. This excessive inflation of mind must be attended with many disadvantages; though when I look at the various causes which have combined to produce it, I am not much surprised at its existence. As a people, they feel that they have got to gain a character, and, like individuals under similar circumstances, are captious and conceited in proportion to their defects. They appear to aim at a standard of high reputation, without the laborious task of deserving it, and practise upon themselves the self-deception of believing that they really are that which they only wish to be. This feeling has not been lessened by their successes in the late contest with Great Britain; for, although in several engagements on our favourite element they had an overwhelming superiority, yet there were instances when that was not the case; and the defeat of English frigates, with

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even any disparity of force, was too great an honour to be estimated exactly as it merited. The boasting upon this subject is so extravagant that it burlesques the object of its praise. "America is now the ruler of the waves;" and every song and joke, fact and falsehood, that we have bestowed upon our tars, are transferred to the "Star-spangled banner, and the brave sons of Columbia," with the characteristic fidelity of a national intellect, rendered barren for want of culture.

The tyrannical conduct of the British government in naval affairs, their system of impressment and of flogging, and the absurd and insolent claim of the right of search, might well, particularly the last, have exasperated the American nation, and more especially her seamen; still the Americans are deserving of great honour for what they really achieved. School-boys in the art of war, they were yet better prepared for it, and evinced more practical dexterity, than our hoary-headed practitioners. But with this limited degree of praise they are not content; they are, forsooth, 'the lords of the ocean!' 'Neptune's choicest sons!' 'Victorious, though the English had great superiority of force!' 'The star-spangled banner is the astonishment, the admiration, and the glory of the world!'—with volumes more of such frothy, senseless bombast.

Other causes of their great national pride and vanity suggest themselves to the mind. One may consist in their being so far from the seat of the arts and sciences, that their acquisitions are not tried by the only effectual standard—comparison. They are left in undisputed possession of the belief that infancy is manhood; that puerility is superiority; and that mediocrity is first-rate talent. They have a political republic within themselves; but they send scarcely one representative to the general republic of letters. European writers too, who have never actually visited America, taking their ideas of the inhabitants, their manners and institutions, from the laws and political constitution of the country, have frequently been profuse in their eulogies. Speculating emigrants, from interested motives, have followed in the same track. American authors, in the sincerity of their hearts, have re-echoed these praises; and they would be more than human, were they not

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The old governments of Europe are careful to foster a spirit of national vanity, as an auxiliary to their schemes of war and aggrandizement; and perhaps there are few stronger symptoms of the increase of knowledge in England, than the weakened feeling of enmity towards the French people. It is much to be regretted that circumstances should have so powerfully conspired to engender such a ridiculous and pernicious vice amongst the Americans.

From this source arises also a dislike to strangers. This feeling is very general in America; and, however unpleasant this remark may be to those who have formed a false estimate of the American character from the lying reports of interested individuals, it is our duty to exhibit things as they are, and to disregard the clamours of those who think that a degree of moral excellence exists in the United States utterly incompatible with the circumstances of the people. Mr. Birkbeck says, 'National antipathies are the result of bad political institutions, and not of human nature. Here, whatever their original, whether English, Scotch, Irish, German, French, all are Americans; and of all the unfavourable imputations on the American character, *jealousy of strangers is surely the most absurd and groundless*. The Americans are sufficiently alive to their own interest, but they wish well to strangers, and are not always satisfied with wishing, if they can promote their interest by active services.'

Now, opposed to the authority of this popular writer, we will offer an address, unanimously voted in 1809, at a meeting in New York of 500 adopted citizens, from which the following are extracts:—

'At a respectable meeting, consisting of about five hundred Adopted Republican Citizens of the city of New York, held at Lyon's Hotel, Mott-Street,—Mr. Archibald Taylor being unanimously called to the chair, and Dr. Stephen Dempsey appointed secretary, the subjoined address was unanimously adopted, and ordered to be published.

' To the Adopted Republican Citizens of the city of New York.

' Fellow Citizens,

' A long train of disagreeable circumstances have called us together, and induced us to address you on a subject which, for years, we have acutely felt and deeply deplored. Some of you, groaning under oppression in your native land, have voluntarily emigrated from it, whilst others, more afflicted by despotism, and less favoured by propitious events, find yourselves in the condition of involuntary exile. All, however, have chosen, as a resting-place in the journey through life, this "asylum for the oppressed of all nations." Here, perhaps, mistaking the character of human nature, we pleasingly anticipated, from those who avow themselves the friends of freedom, exemption from that religious persecution and civil tyranny, whose inexorable reign had forced us from our native country. Alas! how greatly were we mistaken! how egregiously have we been disappointed! Our constitutions and governments are indeed free, but between these admirable institutions and ourselves a tyranny is intervened much less tolerable than that from which we fled. We have made permanent settlements in the land of our forefathers; we admire and we are attached to our republican institutions; we have complied with the injunctions of the constitutions and the laws, and we will support them upon equal terms, with our lives and our fortunes. But how are we treated? What has been our reception? Has good faith been observed? Have the promises been performed? Are not we, who are citizens by all the solemnities and obligations of law, treated as aliens—stigmatized as foreigners? We complain not of the constitutions and the laws; they are liberal in principle and benign in operation. They enjoin an abjuration of former allegiance: have we not with alacrity complied with the injunction? They require an oath of fidelity to the Union and to the States: devoted in spirit and in truth to both, we have eagerly taken it. What more is required? What more can be expected? The laws require no more. Shall an under-plot, a counter operation, individual jealousy, and pale-faced cabal, frowned upon by the very elements of the state, subvert the law—put it at defiance—trample it under foot? The law places upon the same undistinguishable level, the citizen of native and the citizen of foreign birth. Are we to be told, in this enlightened age, that the law is not to govern; that the essence of a well-ordered society is not a government of laws, but a government of the worst passions? Go back then to a state of anarchy; tear out the bowels of society; revert to the rude con-

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dition of untutored nature, and let the strongest govern. We have never ceased to cherish and to inculcate those opinions which are most consonant to the civil and social state. We have remonstrated against distinctions, at once impolitic and unjust, between native and adopted citizens; but have not our remonstrances and efforts been in vain? No seal, no exertions, no services, however disinterested, unremitted, or great, have been sufficient to shield us from an epithet which, while it poisons the social and impairs the enjoyment of political life, must ultimately terminate in the ruin of the republican party in this city. Alas! has our republic turned upon itself, and in the short period of a few years from the adoption of the constitution?

Resolved unanimously, that 500 copies of the above address and resolution be printed in hand-bills, for the benefit of our fellow republican and adopted citizens.

ARCHIBALD TAYLOR, Chairman.

S. DEMPSEY, Secretary.

Nothing can excite in the mind of an emigrant such surprise and indignation as this ridiculous and selfish antipathy to strangers, which must originate in the most contracted views. Liberal minded men must, in America as in other countries, be above such prejudices; but we here speak of the general sentiment. Some excuse, however, may in this case be made for the Americans, as many strangers join their community chiefly to escape the consequences of their dishonesty in their native land: but the national dislike to strangers is shewn in instances where this cannot possibly be admitted as an excuse.

The celebrated Mr. Emmett, notwithstanding his high reputation at the American bar, is often mentioned with contempt, as being a *foreigner*. A similar accusation was brought against the amiable general Hamilton; and such sentiments are always rapturously applauded in the public forum of New York, where young men of talent exercise their oratorical powers.

In all infant colonies, each individual is so dependent upon his neighbour, that self-interest breaks down minor feelings; but in old settled parts, this check does not operate. Hence it is that in Pennsylvania there exists between the Americans of

Irish and of German extraction the most deadly animosity. In the mind of a German American, the term 'Irishman' is one of the most foul reproaches with which the range of his ideas supplies him. Indeed, Irishmen, as well as Dutchmen, are very generally despised; and it is a high offence to insinuate to an American that he is not of English descent. Yet his jealousy of Englishmen is as great as his contempt for the natives of other countries. Some-travellers, possessing a name and property, have met with a liberal reception, and have not therefore noticed this trait in the American character; for in no country are riches more sought after and esteemed than in America.

The Americans are very covetous of the few titles which are allowed by the laws. In Massachusetts a vote is peculiarly valuable, because an office there makes a man *honourable* during life. This and other titles are always ostentatiously published. But man is the same in all countries. The following extract from the 'Boston Sentinel,' of August 27th, 1817, will illustrate this idea.

'Dinner to Mr. Adams.—Yesterday a public dinner was given to the Hon. John Q. Adams, in the Exchange coffee-house, by his fellow-citizens of Boston. The Hon. Wm. Gray presided, assisted by the Hon. Harrison Gray Otis, George Blake, Esq. and the Hon. Jonathan Mason, vice-presidents. Of the guests were, the Hon. Mr. Adams, late president of the United States, his Excellency Governor Brooks, his Honour Lt. Gov. Phillips, Chief Justice Parker, Judge Story, President Kirkland, Gen. Dearborn, Com. Hull, Gen. Miller, several of the reverend clergy, and many public officers, and strangers of eminence.'

Negro slavery has spread its baleful influence over a great part of the Union. Some writers, particularly Englishmen, who would wish to represent the states as a second Arcadia, have offered an apology for this detestable practice, by contending that it formed a *part of the policy of the colonial system*: but this excuse does not apply to the *new states*; for the congress has resigned the inhabitants of these vast regions as victims of its demoralizing effects. The native Indians present,

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of course, nothing but a picture of mere savage life; and the poor negroes suffer even more than commonly falls to the lot of their oppressed and degraded condition. What a foul stain upon the republic, professing, as it does, the principles of liberty and equal rights, that, out of twenty states, there should be eleven in which slavery is an avowed part of their political constitution; and that in those *called free* (New England excepted) the condition of blacks should *practically* amount to slavery! Like the Greeks of old, they talk of freedom, while the degraded Helot is within their doors.

Upwards of *one million seven hundred thousand* negroes are still held as *slaves* in the United States; for, though slavery has been abolished by a law of the general government in 1803, and also by most of the eastern and middle states, yet that 'broadest foulest blot' upon a nation professing Christianity, is still tolerated, and prevails over a very large portion of the Union; corrupting and debasing the public morals, and communicating its depraving influence to both the slave and his master. Besides the negroes, there are upwards of 200,000 free people of colour; both these classes, however, acquire occasionally an admixture of the blood of the white population, and the *mestizos* are gaining fast in number upon the blacks. The great body of slaves are to be found in the southern states.

The experience of all history proves that the structure of society in *slave-holding* countries is unfavourable to internal peace at all times, and still more so to security and strength in the season of foreign warfare. Besides, a slave is ignorant of the very elements of *industry*, which is the basis of all social prosperity. While in bondage he only obeys the impulse of another's will, he is actuated by no other motive but the dread of the lash; whereas, when made free, he must think, plan, provide for himself and family, and perform all the duties of a citizen. It is necessary to make a slave a *man*, before he is made a free man. The slave, recently liberated, has experienced only the most laborious and disagreeable of the occupations of a citizen; and not having learned any forecast, is unwilling to toil when free. The emancipated negroes of Massachusetts prove, that such an order of beings have not

the capacity to avail themselves of the benefits of civil liberty. For in that state, where slavery is abolished by law, and which consequently opens an asylum to fugitive slaves from the neighbouring states, the negroes do *not* keep up their stock of population, by the help both of native breeding and runaway importation; so improvident, so helpless, and so deficient in all those habits of steady and useful industry, which are essentially necessary to obtain a competent support for themselves and a growing family, have they been rendered by a long continuance in slavery.

The treatment of the negroes throughout the slave states is as villainous as can be well imagined; and although they are themselves not insensible to the evils of their condition, they do not seem to feel it so acutely as might be anticipated, or as the man of common humanity would feel on their account. This, however, is natural enough, and easy to account for. As the body is enslaved, the mind becomes degraded, and loses a sense of its own dignity, and of the value of independence.

A distinguished writer has most justly observed, that 'if there be an object truly ridiculous in nature, it is an American patriot, signing resolutions of independence with one hand, and with the other brandishing a whip over his affrighted slave.' Even in Cincinnati, people retain slaves in violation of the spirit of the Ohio constitution, by first purchasing them, and then binding them as apprentices. Some are so base as to take these negroes down the river at the approach of the expiration of their apprenticeship, *and sell them at Natchez for life!*

An English traveller, seeing above thirty boats and keels pass down the Mississippi at Natchez, says, 'A great many coloured people, particularly females, being in these boats, I concluded that they were emigrants, who had proceeded thus far on their route towards a settlement. The fact proved to be that fourteen of the flats were freighted with human beings for sale. They had been collected in the several states by slave-dealers, and shipped from Kentucky for a market. They were dressed up to the best advantage, on the same principle that jockeys do horses upon sale. The following is a specimen of advertisement on this subject:—

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"TWENTY DOLLARS REWARD

"Will be paid for apprehending and lodging in jail, or delivering to the subscriber, the following slaves, belonging to JOSEPH IRVIN, of Iberville:—

"TOM, a very light Mulatto, blue eyes, 5 feet 10 inches high, appears to be about 35 years of age, an artful fellow—can read and write, and preaches occasionally.

"CHARLOTTE, a black wench, round and full faced, tall, straight, and likely—about 25 years of age, and wife of the above-named Tom.

"These slaves decamped from their owner's plantation, on the night of the 14th September inst.

"WILLIAM KENNER & Co."

But perhaps the estimation in which the unfortunate negroes are held by the free-born Americans, will be best illustrated by the following official document, published at New Orleans.

'CITY COUNCIL OF NEW ORLEANS.

'An ordinance in relation to slaves in the city and suburbs of New Orleans, as also in the neighbourhood thereof, and to no other persons herein mentioned.

'The city council ordains as follows:

'Art. 1. No slave or slaves within the city and suburbs of New Orleans, and the neighbourhood thereof, shall have, hold, occupy, reside or sleep in any house, out-house, building, or enclosure, other than his or her owner's, or his or her owner's representatives, or of the person whom he is or they are serving for hire, without first obtaining a ticket or tickets from his, her, or their owner or owners, expressly describing the place which such slave or slaves is or are allowed respectively to occupy, reside, or sleep in; and specifying also the time during which the aforesaid permission or permissions is or are granted; and every slave, holding, occupying, residing or sleeping in any house, out-house, building, or enclosure, without obtaining the permission aforesaid, shall be committed to the jail by any officer of police, or any other white person, there to receive twenty lashes, on a warrant from the mayor, or from a justice of the peace, unless the owner or owners of such slaves shall previously pay a fine of five dollars for each of them, with all costs and charges.

'Art. 6. The assemblies of slaves for the purpose of dancing or other merriment, shall take place only on Sundays, and solely in such open or public places as shall be appointed by the mayor; and no such assembly shall continue later than sunset; and all slaves who shall be found assembled together on any other day than Sunday, or who, even on that day, shall continue their dances after sunset, shall be taken up by the officers of police, constables, watchmen, or other white persons, and shall be lodged in the public jail, where they shall receive from 10 to 25 lashes, on a warrant from the mayor or a justice of the peace; the clauses specified in the preceding article against all owners or occupants of houses or lots, forming or tolerating such assemblies on their premises, being in full force against them.

'Art. 7. No person giving a ball to free people of colour shall, on any pretext, admit or suffer to be admitted to said ball any slave, on penalty of a fine from 10 to 50 dollars; and any slave admitted to any such ball shall receive 15 lashes.

'Art. 8. Every slave, except such as may be blind or infirm, who shall walk in any street or open place with a cane, club, or other stick, shall be carried to the police jail, where he shall receive 25 lashes, and shall moreover forfeit every such cane, club, or other stick, to any white person seizing the same; and every slave carrying any arms whatever, shall be punished in the manner prescribed by the *Black Code* of this state.

'Art. 9. If any slave shall be guilty of whooping or hallooing any where in the city and suburbs, or of making any clamorous noise, or of singing aloud any indecent song, he or she shall, for each and every such offence, receive at the police jail, on a warrant from the mayor, or any justice of the peace, a number of 20 lashes or stripes; and if any such offence be committed on board any vessel, the master or commander thereof shall forfeit and pay a sum of 20 dollars for every such offence.

'Art. 10. Every slave who shall be guilty of disrespect towards any white person, or shall insult any free person, shall receive 30 lashes, upon an order from the mayor, or justice of the peace.

'Art. 13. The present ordinance shall be printed in the usual gazettes, and shall moreover be published by drum-beat, within the city and suburbs, twice every week during fifteen days, and once every month after that time.

Approved, October 15th, 1817.

Nov. 3.

J. SOULIE, Recorder.

AUG. MACARTY, Mayor.

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What points out very forcibly the degrading effects of slavery upon the mind is, that the Americans, even in worshipping the common Father of all, refuse to permit the approach of coloured people. They are obliged to have churches of their own. In Philadelphia, 'the three "African churches," as they are called, are for all those native Americans who are black, or have any shade of colour darker than white. These persons, though many of them are possessed of the rights of citizenship, are not admitted into the churches which are visited by whites. There exists a penal law, deeply written in the minds of the whole white population, which subjects their coloured fellow-citizens to unconditional contumely and never-ceasing insult. No respectability, however unquestionable—no property, however large—no character, however unblemished—will gain a man, whose body is (in American estimation) *curst* with even a twentieth portion of the blood of his African ancestry, admission into society!!! They are considered as mere Pariahs—as outcasts and vagrants upon the face of the earth!

The diversity of laws in separate states, by which acts considered as a crime in one part are not punishable in another, and also many confused impressions of right and wrong, generate much evil, while the state of the bankrupt laws, and an immense and complicated paper currency, are universal and increasing evils; each of these having opened an extensive field to the calculations of avidity and the speculations of the dishonest. The list of insolvencies is enormous. Failure in trade, so far from being a cause of loss, or a subject of shame, is generally the means of securing a fortune; and so callous upon this subject has the public mind become, that no kind of disadvantage or disgrace attaches to the individual, who takes, therefore, little pains to disguise the source of his wealth.

Although *pauperism* has not arrived at English maturity, nor does it often attract the public eye, yet it does exist, and that to a great extent, which may be seen in governor Clinton's most able address to the New York legislature. He there remarks, 'Our statutes relating to the poor are borrowed from the English system. And the experience of that country, as

well as our own, shows that pauperism increases with the augmentation of the funds applied to its relief. This evil has proceeded to such an alarming extent in the city of New York, that the burdens of heavy taxation which it has imposed, menace a diminution of the population of that city, and a depreciation of its real property. The consequences will be very injurious to the whole state; for the decay of our great market will be felt in every department of productive labour. Under the present system the fruits of industry are appropriated to the wants of idleness; a laborious poor man is taxed for the support of an idle beggar; and the voice of mendicinity, no longer considered degrading, infects a considerable portion of our population in large towns. I am persuaded that the sooner a radical reform takes place, the better. The evil is contagious, and a prompt extirpation can alone prevent its pernicious extension.

To pauperism may be added LOTTERIES, which are numerous in all the states; and in many the English exploded iniquity of *insurance*, and '*little goes*,' exist in full operation. To such an extent is this scandalous mode of gaming carried, that one traveller mentions a lottery, when he was in the Illinois, for building a presbyterian church! The '*scheme*' was preceded by a long address upon the advantages of religion, and the necessity of supporting Christianity by purchasing tickets in this lottery!

All these drawbacks upon the general character of the Americans are the natural result of the materials of which they are composed. The first civilized population of the States were emigrants from the several European nations, particularly England; the most respectable class of which were those who fled from religious persecution; no inconsiderable number of transports; and the rest were, as emigrants ever are,—the most enterprising, the most needy, but by no means the most intelligent of their native country. Such then were the seeds of American society; let us look at the circumstances in which these men were placed; in a country where civilization had made no progress; where every man, both in mind and body, was fully occupied in obtaining the bare means of subsistence;

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and where their relative situation towards the natives of the soil was calculated to deaden every just, benevolent, and humane sentiment. As society advanced, indeed, the whole population no longer remained 'hewers of wood and drawers of water.' Classification commenced; but still those whose views, means, or habits could be mental, were extremely limited in number. They left Europe at a dark period, not themselves the finest specimens of the national picture; even those amongst them who had leisure for literary objects, met with obstacles at every step—the want of books, the want of society, and of communication with learned individuals or of scientific bodies. There was besides no history attached to their country; they lived *indeed* in a new world, 'which was endeared to them by no recollections, and which could neither excite nor gratify their curiosity, by the records of the past.' The first accessions of strength from the 'old country,' furnished little besides an increase of the manual labour. The colonial government introduced some men of information: public education was attended to; riches increased; the slave-trade was encouraged; negroes were introduced in every American colony; the extermination of Indians went on, the invaders gradually seizing on their country. Literature was now in some respects advancing, though the colonists depended for their mental as well as bodily clothing upon the mother country; English, Dutch, Irish, Scotch, Germans, and their several descendants, were becoming to speak one language, and have one common interest. They were, as colonists ever and necessarily are, inferior to the parent country in the first class of its intelligence, but above its grosser ignorance. Society had at this time acquired stability. The *Revolution* now took place. This struggle, chiefly in consequence of Paine's 'Common Sense,' terminated in a 'Declaration of Independence.' The friends of liberty in Europe now crossed the Atlantic to fan their darling flame. Others also emigrated of a more dubious character: America became the receptacle for speculators and fortune-hunters, for adventurers and base and demoralized characters of every shade and description. The peaceful pursuits of agriculture were exchanged for those of

the sword; society was shifted from its base, and every thing became disorganised. Peace was at length proclaimed, but it failed to bring with it those halcyon days, of which the olive-branch is generally considered the precursor. America was now a chaos, bankrupt alike, it was feared, in morals and in finances; and it required all the coolness and ability of Washington to preserve the public peace. A reversion of the principles of the federal union seemed to become necessary, in order to increase the powers of government. This question gave rise to two parties, who still foster in their breasts the most implacable hatred. Those who advocated a reversion of the constitution took the name of *Federalists*, and their opponents that of *Democrats*.

America, in the mean time, in her political capacity, was making rapid advances towards taking her standing as a first-rate power. Her internal resources were boundless; her geographical situation secured her from attack during the weakness, as it were, of infancy; her population went on increasing in a ratio not paralleled in modern times, but easily to be accounted for upon well-known principles of political economy. At this time it was that the disturbed state of Europe threw into her hands the carrying trade of the world, and enabled her to erect a mercantile marine, only second to that of Great Britain. This unexpected, and *unprepared-for* influx of wealth, demoralized, while it enriched; with the people, there was no preparation, no pupillage, no gradation, no step from the primitive log-house to the splendour of the palace. European luxury and vice, unadorned by European knowledge, and not ameliorated by European habits of refinement, rapidly overspread the land, and produced their natural and unavoidable consequences. The pursuits of the whole people assumed also a hazardous and *speculative* cast; opportunities for indulging which were constantly presented by the disturbed state of European commerce, and by their own vast unpeopled continent. The means of living were in the hands of every man, with the occupation of but one-fourth part of his time. They were in possession of political and domestic ease, the sources, or the value of which, their want of reflection

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prevented them from estimating; and having at once the means, the time, and the opportunity of gratifying their passions, or indulging their indolence, they have not pursued learning beyond their school-books. Thus, neglecting to encourage any pursuits, either individually or collectively, which may be called *mental*, they appear, as a nation, to have sunk into habits of indolence and indifference; they are neither lively in their tempers, nor generous in their dispositions.

Looking fairly therefore at all these circumstances, we ought not to be surprised to find that *American theory is at least two centuries in advance of American practice*. We have usually connected with our ideas of republicanism and unpolished manners, a simplicity and honesty of mind which more than compensate for all minor defects. That we should not meet with even an approach to these characteristics in America is by no means extraordinary, when we reflect upon their origin and the materials from which their present character is derived.

Upon the whole, it will be seen that the Americans are not possessed of a superior degree of intelligence and moral feeling. With regard to information, men are almost upon a dead level, that gradation of intellect which exists in England being unknown. The American labourers possess more intelligence than those of the same class in England; but the middle ranks fall short, from the causes before mentioned, of our standard.

What is here said relative to the character of the inhabitants of America, does not apply to the circumstances of the country. As to America generally, it possesses some most important advantages, among which are to be enumerated, an extensive and, in parts, a very fertile country—a population not filled up—and, above all, a *reasonable* and a *cheap* government. These give to the poor man a recompense for his labour proportionate to his deserts: they also open numerous sources for the valuable employment of capital; and they give a solid satisfaction, *as to the future*, in the mind of a man of family or of property, which it is impossible to derive from a

contemplation of the present condition, and the present policy, of any of the old governments.

In forming an estimate of the American character, it is necessary to take into the account the prejudice and the interests of those who have undertaken to enlighten us on the subject. Some emigrants, in order to increase the population in their neighbourhood, and consequently the value of their property; and others from a deep-rooted dislike to the governments under which they have suffered, describe America as a political elysium, and its inhabitants as exempt from the failings and vices that they imported from Europe. Others again, in travelling through the States, exclaim that all is barren. An intelligent traveller met an Englishman in New England. 'My fellow-countryman,' says he, 'was so full of the importance and superiority of England, that any thing American did not, in his eyes, seem worthy of notice. A man passed us on horseback without bowing or speaking; *my friend* exclaimed, "There, you see they have neither manners nor common sense in this country; if we were in England, you know, and a man passed the stage, he would bow and say, How do you do?" To this gentleman the old story was strictly applicable of two Englishmen and an American travelling in a stage from Boston. They indulged their patriotism by abusing every thing American. The butter was not so good as the English—nor the beef—nor the mutton—nor the peaches—nor the laws—nor the people—nor the climate—nor the country. Their fellow-traveller was displeased, but he remained silent. At length there came on a tremendous storm of thunder and lightning. He then burst forth, boiling with rage, "There, d—— you! I guess that that thunder and lightning is as good as any you have in England."

RELIGION.

An estimate has been lately made of the proportion of churches and clergymen to the population, by the rev. Mr. Beecher, in his Address to the Charitable Society for the edu-

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cation of pious young men for the ministry of the gospel. This author proceeds on the assumption that there should be a regular pastor for every 150 families or 1000 souls. The present ratio in the New England states is one to every 1500 persons. In Great Britain and Ireland, the proportion of ministers to the number of souls is found to be one to every 800 or 900. An American population of eight millions would, of course, require 8000 ministers; but the whole number of regular well educated ministers does not exceed 3000. In New York, the actual number of pastors is about 500, the population of a million would require double this number. In New Jersey, there is a deficiency of at least 50 pastors. In Pennsylvania and Delaware the deficiency is very considerable. Virginia, with a population of 974,000, has but 60 regular ministers, consequently, 914,000 persons are without adequate religious instruction. The situation of Maryland is similar to that of Virginia.

With respect to the state of religion in Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee, no accurate information was obtained. North Carolina, with a population of 555,500, which would require 550 clergymen, has but 20. South Carolina, with a population of 415,000, has but 36 ministers. Georgia has but ten clergymen.

Mr. Beecher's enumeration, it is to be observed, includes only regularly educated clergymen; but there are, besides, a number of itinerant preachers in the United States, and many persons among the different sects, who officiate occasionally as religious teachers, though they derive their subsistence from other professions.

The same author informs us, that one-third of all ministers who receive a regular collegiate education in the United States, are educated at Harvard and Yale colleges.

The highest clerical stipend in the United States is 5000 dollars, with a dwelling-house, and the fees of marriage, which, though voluntary, are always liberal. The common salary of a respectable clergyman in New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore, is 2500 dollars; and the value of the house and fees varies from 200 to 500 dollars and upwards. In the country

the stipend is much lower. In the state of Connecticut it seldom exceeds 1000 dollars per annum, but with a house and small glebe, and occasional presents. This affords a very decent support to a clergyman, and enables him to give his sons a college education.

The principal religious denominations in the United States are, congregationalists, presbyterians, episcopalians, friends or quakers, methodists, baptists, German Lutherans, Dutch reformed, Roman catholics, Moravians, Mennonists, jumpers, universalists, and shakers. If the whole population were divided into twelve parts, three of these would be Calvinists, chiefly of the congregational and presbyterian sects; two baptists; two methodists; one episcopalians and Lutherans; the rest include persons of many various forms of belief, and a considerable number who follow no religious profession.

Of the *Congregationalists*, a few years since, there were 1000 congregations in New England, and 200 in the middle and southern states, with 120 ministers and candidates for the ministry. Their system of church discipline is derived chiefly from that which was established in 1700, and is known by the name of the Say Brook Platform. Each church chooses its own minister, but is associated with others for mutual advantage, and the termination of disputes. Meetings are held for this purpose twice a year.

Presbyterians.—In the year 1810 there were 772 congregations of presbyterians, with 434 ministers, and a number of licentiates. This denomination prevails in the middle and southern states. Their highest ecclesiastical court is styled the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church, under which are synods, presbyteries, and church sessions. In 1810 there were five synods and 36 presbyteries. At Princeton there is a theological school for Calvinists, well endowed, with a good library.

The *Episcopalians*, before the revolution, were obliged to send their preachers to England for ordination, at the average expence of 100*l*. sterling each. Dr. Chemeler, in his appeal to the public in behalf of the church of England, stated, 'that, of 52 who went home for orders, only 42 returned in safety,

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owing to sickness, or the accidents of the voyage.' This absurd regulation kept many of the churches unprovided with clergymen. In the year 1808, the number of episcopalian churches in New England was 65, that of ministers, 48; in the middle states, 68 churches, and 66 ministers; in the southern, 105 churches, and 101 ministers; in all, 238 churches, and 215 ministers. The churches are under the general direction of the Convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church, which is composed of two houses; the one of bishops, the other of delegates, consisting of clergymen and laymen.

Of the *Quakers* or Friends there were about 400 congregations some years ago, and chiefly in the middle states. In the northern there are few, except in Rhode island. In North Carolina there is a quaker settlement at New Garden, and congregations at Pasquotank and Wood creek.

Methodists.—The number of methodists in 1809 amounted to 159,500. They are more numerous in the middle and southern than in the northern states. Their churches are associated under the title of the United Societies of the Methodist Episcopal church. The whole country is divided into religious districts and circuits; the former under the direction of a presiding elder, the latter under the inspection of an itinerant preacher; both of whom are appointed at the annual conference. The seeds of methodism were first sown in this country by the celebrated Whitefield. It is believed that this sect is increasing very considerably.

Baptists.—In the year 1793, there were 45 baptist associations in the United States, 1032 churches, 1291 ministers, and 73,471 members. In May, 1817, the general convention of the baptist denomination in the United States held their first triennial meeting at Philadelphia; and in their report the number of churches and of members was thus estimated: 2727 churches; ministers, 1936; members in fellowship, 183,245. In the state of New York the number of churches was 321, of members, 23,558; in Kentucky, 421 churches, and 22,432 members; in Georgia, 202 churches, and 16,834 members; in Virginia, 314 churches, and 11,838 members.

Lutherans.—In the states of New York and Pennsylvania, the Lutherans, chiefly of German origin, have a hundred congregations; the German Calvinists nearly the same number. Several of the clergymen of this denomination have distinguished themselves by their literary and scientific attainments; the late Dr. Muhlenburg of Lancaster, as a botanist, Dr. Kunzie of New York, as an oriental scholar and mathematician, Mr. Melsheimer of Pennsylvania, as an etymologist.

The *Dutch Reformed* church, under the name of the Reformed Synod of New York and new Jersey, consists of about 80 congregations. The canons of Dordrecht are adopted as a rule of discipline, and the Heidelberg Catechism as the rule of faith.

Roman Catholics.—This denomination is more numerous in Maryland and in Louisiana, than in any of the other states. The Roman catholics of Maryland are chiefly of Irish, those of Louisiana of French origin. Some years ago, the number in Maryland was 75,000. In Baltimore there is an archbishop and four bishops, and three churches; in Boston, a church and a bishop; in New York, two churches and a bishop; in Philadelphia, four churches and a bishop; in Bardstown, one; in Kentucky, one; in Louisiana, one, with two canons, and 25 curates, who receive each about 500 dollars a year.

Moravians, or United Brethren.—In the year 1788, the number of this denomination was about 2000. Their principal establishments are at Bethlehem and Nazareth in Pennsylvania, at Hope in New Jersey, and at Wachovia, on the Yadkin river, in North Carolina. In the last state they purchased 100,000 acres of land from lord Granville. They are styled the United Brethren of the Protestant Episcopal Church. The first person of this sect arrived in the United States in 1741, under the protection of count Zinzendorf.

At Bethlehem, in Pennsylvania, the Moravians have a large society, occupying a number of farms. There is a great hall in which all daily assemble for the purpose of public worship. The single men and women have each a separate dwelling. The latter are occupied in various domestic employments,—in fancy and ornamental works, and occasionally in musical

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practice under the direction of a superintendent. The walls of the large hall where the society dine are adorned with paintings, chiefly Scripture pieces, executed by members. Various branches of trade and manufacture are carried on, the profits of which go to the general stock, from which all are supplied with the necessaries of life. Their whole time is spent in labour and in prayer, except an hour in the evening, which is allotted for a concert. Marriage is contracted in a singular manner. The young man who has an inclination to marry makes application to the priest, who presents a young woman designated by the superintendent as the next in rotation for marriage. Having left the parties together for an hour, the priest returns, and if they mutually consent to live together, they are married the next day; if otherwise, each is put at the bottom of the list, containing, perhaps, 60 or 70 names, and, on the part of the girl, there is no chance of marriage, unless the same young man should again feel disposed for matrimony. When united, a neat habitation, with a pleasant garden, is provided, and their children, at the age of six, are placed in the seminary. If either of the parents die, the other returns to the apartment of the single people. In the Moravian establishment there is a tavern with large and excellent accommodations. There are Moravian establishments also in South Carolina, at Bethania, Salem, and other places on the Moravian branch of the river Yadlin.

Universalists.—We have not been able to procure any estimate of the number of persons of this persuasion. They form two divisions; the followers of Dr. Chinery, and those of Mr. John Murray.

Shakers.—The first of this sect came from England in 1774. Their number is inconsiderable. Their principal establishments are at Nisqueunah, and New Lebanon, in the state of New York; at Enfield in Connecticut, and at Canterbury in New Hampshire.

The *Tunkers*, a sect in Pennsylvania, took their origin from a German, who, weary of the busy world, retired to a solitary place about 50 miles from Philadelphia, where he formed a colony on a river named *Euphrates*. Their religious

practices resemble those of the quakers, none but those who feel the divine influence having a right to preach and exhort. The women live separate from the men, and never associate except for the purpose of public worship, or public business. Divine service is performed twice a day; and the whole time, except a few hours given to sleep, is spent in labour and in prayer. They hold as injurious the doctrine of original sin, and deny the eternity of future punishment; though they admit of a hell and a paradise. They believe that the souls of Christians are employed in the next world in the conversion of those who left this without enjoying the light of the gospel.

In their conduct they show a stoical indifference to the good and evil of life. They never complain or retaliate, even when insulted or robbed of their property. The dress of both sexes consists of a long white hooded gown, a coarse shirt, and thick shoes. The men wear wide breeches resembling those of the Turks; and never cut the beard, which, in some, reaches to the waist. Their food consists of vegetables only, the produce of their own labour, which is deposited in a common stock for the wants of the society.

Sandemanians.—Of this sect there is a small society at Portsmouth, in New Hampshire.

Mennonists, who derive their name from Simon Menno, a German baptist, live in Pennsylvania. In the year 1770, their number amounted to 4000, forming thirteen churches, and 40 congregations.

In New England clerical gentlemen have an astonishing hold upon the minds of men: the degree of reverential awe for the sanctity of their office, and the attention paid to the *external forms* of religion, approach almost to idolatry: these feelings are, perhaps, never encouraged without becoming the substitute of *real religion*, and expelling the active and mental principles of Christianity. A man who values his good name in Boston, hardly dare be seen out of church at the appointed hours;—this would be viewed as a heinous crime by men who would consider the same individual's cheating his creditors as of small import. Indeed, throughout the whole of the United States, there exists a kind of cold indifference in matters rela-

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tive to religion, as far as concerns discussion and controversy. Every man is expected quietly to choose one of the churches; and when that is done, he must abide by it as solemnly and as regularly as he does his *segar*, his rum, and his business. *Whatever degree of religious intelligence exists, is confined to the clergy*; who, perhaps, have lost no advantage by the abolition of a state religion.

Religious fanaticism is very general in the States, and is carried to a degree of extravagance almost inconceivable in this country. We have before us some account of *Camp Meetings*, which are occasionally held in different states; but the description is too indecent and gross to bear repetition. We will, however, as a specimen of these improprieties, relate a few such like occurrences from the pen of two recent and respectable travellers.

‘The Sunday after my arrival at Savannah,’ says Mr. Lambert, ‘I was passing a methodist meeting, and was induced, by the vehemence of the preacher, to go in and hear his discourse. He uttered such terrible imprecations upon sinners unless they were born again in faith, that one half of his congregation were groaning and weeping in the most pitiable manner. Such an assemblage of wretched looks, and pale, ghastly countenances, I never before saw; they seemed, indeed, to have suffered severe castigation for their sins even in this world. Instead of benefiting by the mild and consolatory precepts of Christianity, these people appeared to be lost in a sea of doubt and perplexity; and seemed to think of nothing but everlasting damnation, unless perchance they construed a *gripping of the bowels* into the *workings of divine grace*.’

Another writer describes the mode in which the artful and designing impose upon the ignorant and unwary in the following words:—

‘Having heard that American methodists were distinguished for an extreme degree of fanatical violence in their religious exercises, I visited the African church, (all houses of religious assembly being denominated churches,) in which were none but blacks; and in the evening, “Ebenezer church,” in which

were only whites. As the latter possessed all the characteristics of the former, with considerable additions of its own, to that only it is necessary that I should call your attention. I went at eight o'clock in the evening. The door was locked; but the windows being open, I placed myself at one of them, and saw that the church within was crowded almost to suffocation. The preacher indulged in long pauses, and occasional loud elevations of voice, which were always answered by the audience with deep groans. When the prayer which followed the sermon had ended, the minister descended from the pulpit, the doors were thrown open, and a considerable number of the audience departed. Understanding, however, that something was yet to follow, with considerable difficulty I obtained admission. The minister had departed, the doors were again closed, but about four hundred persons remained. One (apparently) of the leading members gave out a hymn, then a brother was called upon to pray: he roared and ranted like a maniac; the male part of the audience groaned, the female shrieked; a man sitting next to me shouted; a youth standing before me continued for half an hour bawling, "Oh Jesus! come down, come down, Jesus! my dear Jesus, I see you! bless me, Jesus! Oh! oh! oh! Come down, Jesus!" A small space farther on, a girl about eleven years of age was in convulsions: an old woman, who I concluded was her mother, stood on the seat, holding her up in her arms, that her extacies might be visible to the whole assembly. In another place there was a convocation of holy sisters, sending forth most awful yells. A brother now stood forward, stating, that, "although numbers had gone, he trusted the Lord would that night work some signal favours among his dear lambs." Two sisters advanced towards him, refusing to be comforted, "for the Lord was with them:" another brother prayed—and another. "Brother Macfaddin" was now called upon, and he addressed them with a voice which might rival a peal of thunder, the whole congregation occasionally joining responsive to his notes. The madness now became threefold increased, and such a scene presented itself as I could never have pictured to

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my imagination, and as I trust, for the honour of true religion and of human nature, I shall never see again. Had the inhabitants of Bedlam been let loose, they could not have exceeded it. From forty to fifty were praying aloud and extemporaneously at the same moment of time: some were kicking, many jumping, all clapping their hands and crying out in chorus, "Glory! glory! glory! Jesus Christ is a very good friend! Jesus Christ is a very good friend! Oh God! oh Jesus! come down! Glory! glory! glory! Thank you, Jesus! thank you, God! Oh, glory! glory! glory!!!" Mere exhaustion of bodily strength produced a cessation of madness for a few minutes. A hymn was given out and sung; praying then recommenced; the scene of madness was again acted, with, if possible, increased efforts on the part of the performers. One of the brothers prayed *to be kept from enthusiasm!* A girl of six years of age became the next object of attention. A reverend brother proclaimed that she "had just received a visit from the Lord, and was in awful convulsions—so hard was the working of the spirit!" This scene continued for some time; but the audience gradually lessened, so that by ten o'clock the field of active operations was considerably contracted. The women, however, forming a compact column at the most distant corner of the church, continued their shriekings with but little abatement. Feeling disposed to get a nearer sight of the beings who sent forth such terrifying yells, I endeavoured to approach them, but was stopped by several of the brethren, who would not allow of a near approach towards the holy sisterhood. The novelty of this exhibition had, at first sight, rendered it a subject of amusement and interest; but all such feelings soon gave way to an emotion of melancholy horror, when I considered the gloomy picture it represented of human nature, and called to mind that these maniacal fanatics were blaspheming the holy name of Christianity. Notwithstanding my warm love of liberty, I felt that, were I an absolute lawgiver, I would certainly punish and restrain men who thus degraded their nature, who set so wicked an example of religious blasphemy, and so foully libelled the name and character of revelation.

'I have since understood that one of the female converts upon this occasion had been turned away from her situation the previous evening for stealing five dollars.

'A gentleman informed me that he was at "Ebenezer" a few days since, when the preacher stopped in the midst of his discourse, and directed those among his audience who were for King Jesus to stand up. Numbers of men and women immediately rose, shouting "I am for Jesus." "I am for Jesus." "I am for King Jesus." "Oh, that I could press him to my bosom!" "There he comes." "I am for King Jesus." I am informed that these exhibitions are neither singular in occurrence nor partial in extent, and feel at a loss to account for such fanatical enthusiasm in this country: it is by no means an essential part of the creed of either Wesley or Whitefield; and, in Great Britain, few bodies of men conduct their meetings with more order than the methodists. In Wales, I understand, and perhaps in some country parts of England, there may be occasional exhibitions of the same kind; but they are of rare occurrence, and comparatively moderate in their excesses. In Ireland I have also witnessed occasional violence; but never any thing at all equal to that exhibited at "Ebenezer." In the latter country, too, we make some allowance for national character: they are all fire—all feeling; but with Americans, whatever may be their excellences or defects, they are certainly not chargeable with possessing a superabundance of warm blood: they are, on the contrary, most remarkable for complete and general coldness of character and disposition. That, therefore, *they* should be enthusiastic, even in matters of religion, would appear a matter of difficult solution. In the individuals, it would seem to burst forth upon prepared occasions, and to exist in common with—perhaps actually to spring from, a cold-blooded callousness of disposition. The general theory which attributes *warmth* of feeling to the fanatic is perhaps, after all, a false one. Who so bigoted, so exclusive, so illiberal towards others, so wholly devoid of every generous sentiment? The extreme fanaticism of these maniacal saints may perhaps therefore actually spring

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PUBLIC LANDS.

Before we enter upon the important subject of agriculture, it will be necessary to notice the regulations adopted respecting the sale and occupation of lands belonging to the States.

The United States have obtained, by cession from the different states of the Union, all their respective rights to public lands. The Indian title to extensive tracts has been extinguished by treaty, and all the vacant lands of Louisiana have become national property. According to the statement of the commissioner of the general land office, dated the 30th December, 1813, there are upwards of 400,000,000 of acres of national domain undisposed of.

1. Lands of which the Indian title has been extinguished,	56,225,000
2. Lands of which the Indian title has not been extinguished eastward of the Mississippi,	148,876,000
3. Lands of which the Indian title has not been extinguished in Louisiana and the Missouri territory, estimated at	200,000,000
Total,	405,101,000

This land is of every quality of soil, and extends through almost every variety of climate.

The law for the sale of public lands was passed in the year 1800, and has since undergone some modifications. The lands having been surveyed, are divided into townships of six miles square, each of which is subdivided into 36 sections, of one mile square, or 640 acres. The dividing lines run in the direction of the cardinal points, and cross one another at right angles. This business is under the direction of two surveyors, the one having the title of 'Surveyor-general,' the other that of 'Surveyor of the public lands south of the state of Tennessee.' The powers and duties of the first extend over all the public lands north of the river Ohio, and over the territory of

Louisiana; those of the second over the territories of Orleans and Mississippi. A return of the surveys is transmitted to the proper land-office, and also to the treasury-office at Washington. A 36th part, or 640 acres of each township, is allotted for the support of schools within its limits; and seven entire townships have been given in perpetuity, for the support of seminaries of learning; two in the state of Ohio, and one in each of the territories of Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Mississippi, and Louisiana. In every act or deed, lead mines and salt springs are reserved, and may be leased by government. The rivers Mississippi and Ohio, and all the navigable streams that lead into either, or into the St. Lawrence, remain as common highways, and free from all tax, to all the citizens of the United States. The lands are offered at public sale, in quarter sections of 160 acres each. The *minimum* price is two dollars per acre. The lands not purchased at public sale may be sold privately at this price. In either case the purchase-money is paid in four equal instalments; the first within 40 days, and the others within two, three, and four years, after the date of the purchase. If the payment be not made according to the terms, interest is paid at the rate of six per cent. per annum. On each instalment a discount of eight per cent. is allowed for prompt payment; so that, if the amount be paid at the time of purchase, the price is reduced to a dollar and 64 cents per acre. If the whole of the purchase-money be not paid within five years after the date of the purchase, the lands are offered at public sale, but cannot be disposed of for less than the arrears of principal and interest due thereon. If this amount cannot be obtained, they revert to the United States, and the partial payments are forfeited. If they sell for a greater sum, the surplus is returned to the original purchaser. The lands purchased from the Indians are divided into districts, and a land-office established in each, under the direction of two officers; a register, who receives the applications and sells the land; and a receiver of public monies, to whom the purchase-money is paid, if not transmitted to the treasury department. The patent is not issued until the whole purchase-money, with interest, is paid. The president of the United

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States is authorised, if necessary, to remove intruders from the public lands, by military force. Rights of pre-emption, military bounties, and donations, are regulated by acts of congress. From the opening of the land-offices to the 1st of October, 1812, the sale of public lands in the districts of Marietta, Lanesville, Steubenville, Canton, Chillicothe, Cincinnati, Jeffersonville, and Vincennes, amounted to 4,006,488 acres, and produced 8,508,294 dollars. The lands sold in the Mississippi territory, in Madison county, and west and east of Pearl river, from the 1st of October, 1812, to the 30th of September, 1813, amounted to 514,422 acres, which produced 1,063,831 dollars. From the 1st of July, 1800, to the 1st of the same month, 1810, the whole quantity of land sold amounted to 3,886,000 acres, which produced 7,062,000 dollars, of which 4,880,000 dollars had been received in payment, and the balance remained due by the purchasers.

In 1812, the committee on public lands recommended the repeal of such part of the public laws as allows a credit on part of the purchase-money, and that in future the lands be offered for sale in tracts of 80 acres, at a dollar and 25 cents per acre, which would prevent their monopoly by large capitalists, and enable the industrious poor man to become a purchaser. In the state of Ohio alone, the receipts, on account of forfeitures in 1811, amounted to nearly 50,000 dollars. The forfeiture is generally one-fourth of the purchase-money. If the purchaser take the credit allowed by law on the three instalments, he pays interest of more than ten per cent. per annum; and if he have no other resources than those arising from the land, he forfeits the whole amount of money paid, and all his agricultural improvements are finally lost. This circumstance induced the congress of the United States to pass an act, in February, 1814, in favour of the purchasers of public lands, who had not completed their payments, according to which, those who, prior to the 1st of April, 1810, had purchased lands not exceeding 640 acres, portional sections excepted, were allowed the further time of three years for completing the payment.

A proposition for increasing the price of public lands was under the consideration of congress in 1817; but the committee, in their report, felt somewhat apprehensive, that the United States, so far from being enabled to increase, would find themselves compelled to lessen the price of the public lands, or to forego the golden dreams they indulge of an enormous revenue to arise from their sale.

AGRICULTURE.

The United States, over their whole extent, are truly an agricultural country. The number of persons engaged in commercial pursuits is very small, in proportion to the population; and the manufactures are chiefly carried on by farmers. Agriculture is and must long continue the first and principal object both of the natives and of foreign emigrants. Immense fertile regions, yet uncleared, with every variety of soil and temperature, invite settlers; and the low price of lands enables every industrious man, with a very small capital, to purchase some few hundred acres, and establish himself in a comfortable and independent situation. During the late war, the exclusion of British goods gave a great stimulus to domestic manufactures, and the disposition to embark in them was encouraged by the government; but, since the return of peace, the influx of foreign articles, at inferior prices, has occasioned a great proportion of them to be abandoned. The progress of American agriculture, since the year 1800, has been very considerable. Immense tracts of forests have been brought under the plough. The principles of agriculture have also become an object of attention; and several societies have been established for its improvement. That of Philadelphia has published three octavo volumes. Those of New York, Boston, and Columbia, have also published useful memoirs.

For the purpose of diffusing agricultural knowledge throughout the United States, an association was formed, in 1808, under the name of the 'American Board of Agriculture,' composed chiefly of the members of both houses of congress.

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Sulphat of lime, or gypsum, so useful as a manure, has been lately found, and of a very fine quality, in the state of New York, in the counties of Onondago and Madison, on the borders of the Cayuga and Seneca lakes, and in the territory of Missouri. Sulphuret of barytes has been successfully employed as a manure, and is manufactured for this purpose, at the rate of 25 cents per bushel. The cultivation of the sugarcane has been introduced into Louisiana, and lately into the islands on the coast of Georgia. It is believed that all the land favourable to the cultivation of sea island cotton, may be converted into sugar plantations. During the late war, the agricultural system underwent various changes, depending on new kinds of industry to which it gave birth. In the southern states, the culture of wheat has been substituted for that of tobacco, which, in time of peace, was one of the great articles of exportation. It was found that, at the close of the war, there was about 25,000 hogsheads in the state of Maryland, and from 35,000 to 40,000 in Virginia. The whole value exported in 1813 did not exceed 320,000 dollars. In the state of Pennsylvania an association has been formed for the purpose of encouraging the cultivation of the vine. A species brought from the Cape of Good Hope, of which the wine is agreeable, and the brandy of a superior quality, thrives in the open field. Other species are cultivated in the same state by Mr. Legaux, the wine of which is also of a good quality. It is observed by this gentleman, that in the United States the temperature and vegetation in the 40th degree of latitude, are similar to those of the 48th and 49th of Europe.

It is believed, that the vine will succeed well in Kentucky, Virginia, Tennessee, and upper parts of the Carolinas, particularly in the natural meadows or *barrens*, where the wild grape is similar to that of the suburbs of Paris in France. The white Italian mulberry was long since introduced into the southern states, and the silk-worm was found to thrive; but the high price of labour renders the manufacture of silk unprofitable. The *Sesamum Orientale*, or *benny-seed*, is now cultivated in Virginia and the Carolinas for domestic purposes. The oil which the seed affords is equal to olive oil of the best

quality, and it is difficult to distinguish the one from the other by the taste. Sugar is now cultivated in Georgia, and to a great extent in Louisiana. The quantity made in Louisiana, in 1810, was estimated at ten millions of pounds; and in the same year, according to the reports of the marshals, more than nine millions and a half of sugar were made from the maple-tree in the United States. In 1814, the quantity of sugar made in Louisiana was not less than fifteen millions of pounds; and in 1816, 10,833,704 pounds were exported coastwise from New Orleans, principally to Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York, and this was in addition to the quantity carried up the Mississippi, and consumed in the state of Louisiana. It has lately been ascertained, that several species of plants, from which barilla, or carbonat of soda, is extracted, grow spontaneously in different parts of the United States. The *Salsola kali*, in the island of New York, near the East river, in the environs of Boston, at Richmond in Virginia, and on the borders of the Rappahanoc. The *Salicornia fruticosa*, one of the materials of the fine Alicant barilla, grows in almost all the salt marshes, and fuci of different species abound on the sea-shore. The rearing of sheep has become a great object of rural economy. The Merino species, of a pure as well as mixed breed, are now multiplied throughout the whole extent of the United States. The first that were imported were sold at 1000 dollars each, and the present average price does not exceed 45 dollars. It is a curious fact, that in the United States they are not subject to the fatal disease so well known in Europe under the name of *rot*. In the western parts of the state of New York, they thrive remarkably well, and it would appear that the ravages of the wolf are not more destructive *there* than those of the dog in countries peopled at an earlier period. They do not require as much food as the common sheep; and it is well known that the wool is not only finer, but more abundant. Hemp is now cultivated in certain districts of the states of New York and Kentucky; some of the low or bottom grounds have yielded 600 pounds per acre.

The breed of American horses has been improved by intermixture with those of Europe. In the northern states they

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partake of the qualities of the Norman and English hunter; in those of the south, of the Arabian, or English race-horse.

The breed of oxen has also been improved for the purpose of agricultural labour. Dr. Mease, in his introductory discourse on the diseases of domestic animals, states, that, in South Carolina and Georgia, cattle brought from Europe, or from the interior to the vicinity of the sea, were invariably attacked by a disease which is generally fatal, and that those from a particular district of South Carolina, infect all others with which they mix in their passage to the north, although the former are in perfect health. The hogs of the southern are smaller than those of the northern states, and the pork is sweeter, particularly in Virginia and Maryland, though some of those animals, in the southern states, grow to an enormous size. A hog was killed at Augusta in Georgia, in 1814, four years old, which weighed 698 pounds net. The beef and mutton of the northern states are of a better quality than those of the south. In the former the cattle have also multiplied in a wonderful manner. In the state of New York, the number of neat cattle, in 1814, was 863,298; that of sheep, 1,410,044; of horses, 527,570; of fattened swine killed annually, 140,000; of beeves slain or driven to market, 220,000; according to Mr. Blodgett's calculation, the number of horned cattle in 1809 was 3,660,000.

The failure of European projects for agricultural establishments in the United States has excited very unfavourable impressions against such enterprises. This failure is generally ascribable to two causes. 1st, The impostures practised by companies and their agents; and, 2dly, To the habits of the purchasers or occupants, who were strangers to agricultural pursuits. The speculation of the Scioto company was infamous beyond expression. Lands belonging to Indians, or other proprietors, were sold to French emigrants at the rate of six livres per acre. Many of the unfortunate purchasers, who were watchmakers, jewellers, hairdressers, finding no employment in the way of their profession, were obliged to seek refuge and subsistence in the sea-port towns.

Land is sometimes partially cleared, by what is rather ludicrously termed a *frolic*. A man having purchased a quarter, or half section, for the purpose of *settling down*, his neighbours assemble upon an appointed day: one cuts the trees; a second lops them; a third drags them to the spot upon which a log mansion is to be erected; others cross the logs, roof the habitation, and in three days the emigrant has a 'house over his head':—thus ends the American *frolic*. The raising of food is the next point with the new settler: in this he must rely upon his own resources. If he be *strong-handed*, (has property,) he has the trees felled, about one foot from the earth, dragged into heaps, and made into an immense bonfire. Should he be *weak-handed*, (poor,) he is compelled to be content with what is termed *girdling*; which consists in cutting the bark, thereby, of course, killing the trees; and he afterwards clears away the underwood, which is seldom considerable. These preliminary operations being effected, according to either mode, grain is sown, and the produce reaped with a fruitfulness of production, and a dexterity truly extraordinary, considering that these operations are carried on amidst stumps, (which decay in from eight to twelve years,) stones, and surrounded by entire trees. The beauty of an Indian corn crop cannot be exceeded. When cut and carried home, the neighbours assemble to assist in husking; this is called a *husking frolic*. In some parts of the country the term *frolic* admits of a different application;—the religious females present their minister with a variety of gifts, each according to their taste or means: some send a coat, others a hat, and some a goose. They are invited to the preacher's house, to partake of a supper, as a return for their liberality: this is termed a *knitting frolic*. Very little agricultural labour is performed by women. The slender means of many settlers not enabling them to purchase British goods at the high price at which they are sold, the females are therefore chiefly employed in making articles of domestic clothing.

The interior population may perhaps be divided into three classes: First, the squatter, or man who '*sets himself down*'

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upon land which is not his own, and for which he pays nothing; cultivates a sufficient extent to supply himself and family with the necessities of life; remains until he is dissatisfied with his choice, has realized a sufficiency to become a land-owner, or is expelled by the real proprietor. Second, the small farmer who has recently emigrated, had barely sufficient to pay the first instalment for his 80 or 160 acres of two-dollar land; cultivates, or what he calls *improves*, ten to thirty acres; raises a sufficient 'feed' for his family; has the females of it employed in making or patching the wretched clothing of the whole domestic circle; is in a condition which, if *compelled by legislative acts, or by external force to endure*, would be considered truly wretched; but from being his own master, having made his own choice, from the having 'no one to make him afraid,' joined with the consciousness that, though slowly, he is regularly advancing towards wealth; the breath of complaint is seldom heard to escape from his lips. Third, the wealthy or '*strong-handed*' farmer, who owns from five to twelve hundred acres, has one-fourth or one-third under cultivation, of a kind much superior to the former; raises live stock for the home, and Atlantic-city markets; sends beef, pork, cheese, lard, and butter to New Orleans; is perhaps a legislator, at any rate a *squire* (magistrate); is always a man of *plain business-like sense*, though not in possession, nor desirous of a very cultivated intellect; understands his own interest, and that of his country; lives in sufficient affluence, and is possessed of *comfort*, according to the American acceptance of the term, but to which '*old country*' folks must feel inclined to take an exception: but in conclusion, and a most important conclusion it is, the majority of this class of men were, ten or fifteen years ago, inhabitants of the eastern states, and not worth, upon their arrival in Ohio, twenty dollars.

A Table of the Value of the Exports of the proceeds of Agriculture in 1812.

Products of Animals.

	Dollars.
Beef, tallow, hides, live cattle, - -	524,000
Butter and cheese, - - - -	329,000
Pork, pickled bacon, lard, live hogs,	604,000
Horses and mules, - - - -	191,000
Sheep, - - - - -	9,000
	1,657,000

Products of Vegetables.

Wheat, flour, and biscuit, - -	13,687,000
Indian corn and meal, - -	1,939,000
Rice, - - - - -	1,544,000
Rye, oats, pulse, potatoes, - -	627,000
	17,797,000
Tobacco, - - - - -	1,514,000
Cotton, - - - - -	3,080,000
	22,391,000

All other Agricultural Products.

Indigo, - - - - -	5,000
Flax-seed, - - - - -	455,000
Maple sugar, - - - - -	13,000
Hops, - - - - -	7,000
Poultry, flax, mustard, - -	7,000
Sundries, - - - - -	20,000
	507,000

Total amount, - - - 24,555,000

The value of the flour exported in the year ending 30th September, 1817, was 17,751,376 dollars; of the cotton, 22,627,614; tobacco, 9,230,020; rice, 2,378,880; timber and lumber of all descriptions, 3,381,349; pot and pearl ashes, 1,967,243.

The value of the whole products of agriculture, in all the states, was estimated to amount to 511,000,000 dollars yearly. The value of houses, lands, and slaves, as revised and equalised by the principal assessors in 1814 and 1815, was stated at

1,902,296,961 dollars, exclusive of Louisiana. Such calculations cannot be made with great precision; but they afford a sufficient data for ascertaining the progress of the States, and establishing the quota of taxes which each ought to pay towards the support of the general government.

MANUFACTURES.

The restrictive commercial regulations of Europe, and the late war with England, gave a great stimulus to American manufactures, and their progress during the course of a few years was almost incredible. Many new branches were introduced, and these which had been already established were carried to a much greater extent. The principal cause of the neglect of manufactures formerly was the great profits afforded by agriculture, with the high price of labour. All the materials for manufactures are found in America. Fuel is inexhaustible; the ores of the most useful metals are in great abundance, and dyes of all kinds are procured from the vegetable and mineral kingdoms. In the year 1809, the secretary of the treasury unfolded the resources of the country in relation to the raw material, and proposed various means for the promotion of manufactures, protecting and prohibitory duties, drawbacks, premiums, bounties, encouragement to new inventions, arrangements for facilitating pecuniary remittances, &c.

In 1810, the secretary of the treasury of the United States presented to congress a report on the manufactures, in which the following are mentioned as being adequate to the consumption of the United States:—Manufactures of wood, or those of which wood is the principal material; leather, and manufactures of leather; soap and tallow candles; spermaceti oil and candles; flax-seed oil; refined sugar; coarse earthen ware; chocolate and mustard; snuff and hair-powder. The following branches are mentioned as being firmly established, supplying, in several instances, the greater, and in all, a considerable portion of the consumption of the United States: viz. Iron, and manufactures of iron; manufactures of cotton, wool, and hats made of flax; manufactures of paper, printing

types, printed books, playing cards; of hemp and gunpowder, window-glass, jewellery, and clocks; of lead, wax candles, straw bonnets and hats, spirituous and malt liquors. The ships, and vessels of more than twenty tons, built in the United States from 1801 to 1807, measured, at an average, 110,000 tons a year, giving a value of more than six millions of dollars. Two-thirds of these vessels were registered for the foreign trade; the other third for the coasting trade and fisheries. The annual exportation of furniture and carriages amounted to 170,000 dollars; the annual exportation of pot and pearl ash was 7400 tons. The annual value of manufactured articles from leather was estimated at twenty millions of dollars. The greatest portion of soap and tallow is of domestic manufacture. The whole annual value of manufactures was estimated by the secretary of the treasury at eight millions of dollars. In 1803, there were but four cotton mills in the United States; in 1809, the number was 87, and most of them water mills. In 1811, there were 80,000 spindles running. The capital employed in this kind of manufacture amounted to 4,800,000 dollars; in the cotton singly to 3,600,000 pounds, and valued at 720,000 dollars; the yarn spun to 2,880,000 pounds, valued at 3,240,000 dollars. The number of men employed was 503,000, with 500 women and children.

In some places cotton yarn is offered for exportation. The art of printing cotton and calico is carried to great perfection at Philadelphia, by means of rollers moved by water, which stamp 10,000 yards a day. The wool of the United States has been greatly improved by the introduction of the Merino, or Spanish race of sheep, which is now seen all over the country. The Paula and Negritti breed, and that of the Escorial and Infantado, were procured in 1802; the whole number imported till 1801 amounted to 5000. The first were sold at 1000, and even 1500 dollars; but they gradually fell, during that period of time, to 25 and 30 dollars each. The price of the wool was from three-quarters to two dollars per pound. Various manufactories of fine woollen have been established within the last seven years. In the state of New Jersey,

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county of Essex, there are ten woollen manufactories, containing 3600 spindles, capable of manufacturing cloth to the amount of 650,000 dollars per annum. The woollen manufactory at Danville, on the Susquehannah, after its first establishment in 1809, gave a net profit to the company of 40 per cent. on the capital. The broad cloth manufactured near Wilmington, on the Delaware, is said to be equal to the best quality imported from England. The number of fulling mills, in 1810, was 1630; that of wool-carding machines, going by water, 1835; the number of looms returned 330,000. In 1810, twelve millions of pounds weight of sheep's wool were wrought into goods. Manufactories of flax have been lately established in different states; one near Philadelphia produces annually 72,000 yards of canvas; another, 500,000 yards of cotton bagging, sailcloth, and coarse linen.

The next important branch of manufactures are the metals. In 1810, the furnaces, forges, and bloomeries of the United States amounted to 580, of which the state of New York furnished 69. The annual value of iron and its manufactures was estimated by the secretary of the treasury (M. Gallatin) at twelve or fifteen millions of dollars. The average value of imported metal in bar iron and steel was four millions. The Franconia iron-works in New Hampshire, established in 1810, employed a capital of 100,000 dollars. The Vergennes iron-works in Vermont promise to be very important. The price of bar iron at this establishment is 140 dollars per ton; the ore three dollars; charcoal, four dollars and a half per hundred bushels. Nineteen thousand muskets are annually made at the two public armories of Springfield and Harper's Ferry. There is now a considerable surplus of small arms. In 1810, the quantity of gunpowder prepared annually amounted to 1,450,000 pounds; the number of gunpowder mills was 207. The manufactory of gunpowder at Brandywine furnishes 225,000 pounds annually; two, others, near Baltimore, 450,000 pounds. The salt springs of Onondago, Cayuga, &c. in the state of New York, furnish 700,000 bushels of salt per annum, valued at 200,000 dollars; those of the western

states and territories an equal quantity. The Wabash saline, belonging to the United States, gives 130,000 bushels, which is sold there at 75 cents per bushel. The manufactories of refined sugar have kept pace with the increase of population; in 1816, the annual quantity was estimated at five millions of pounds, valued at one million dollars. The manufactories of candles and spermaceti oil at the town of Nantucket, New Bedford, and Hudson, supply the domestic consumption, and furnish annually for exportation 260,000 pounds of candles, and 44,000 gallons of oil. In 1810, the annual quantity of distilled ardent spirits amounted to 23,720,000 gallons. Brandy is made from peaches, whisky from rye and maize, and a spirit also from cyder. Whitmore's machine for making wool cards has excluded the importation of this article. The machine for making nails, now in operation at Ellicot's Mills and other parts of the United States, cuts 12,000 nails in a minute. The manufactories of cotton, wool, copper, brass, nails, and glass, belonging to Baltimore, are valued at two millions of dollars. The manufactories of New York, in 1811, were estimated at thirty millions of dollars, twelve millions of which were produced by domestic industry. There are ten glass manufactories, which produce annually 5,800,000 feet of window glass, valued at 1,200,000 dollars; ten sugar refineries, the manufactures of which are valued at 500,000 dollars; 50 cut-nail factories, the manufactures valued at 300,000 dollars. In 1805, the foreign articles re-exported amounted to 15,384,883 dollars; in 1810, to 6,313,715 dollars, while the domestic had increased to nearly 11,000,000.

The state of Ohio, which, 24 years ago, was a wilderness, frequented only by savages, in the year 1810 manufactured two millions of yards of woollen, flaxen, and cotton cloth; one million of gallons of whisky; thirteen millions of pounds of sugar; with other articles, forming two millions and a quarter of dollars. From the 5th of October to the 5th of May, 1811, a period of seven months, 800 boats passed the falls of the Ohio, laden with the productions and manufactures of this country.

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The following Table exhibits the Value of each Species of Manufacture, according to the Returns of the Marshals and Secretaries of the States and Territories.

	Dollars.
1. Goods manufactured by the loom from cotton, wool, flax, hemp, and silk, - - -	39,497,057
2. Spun goods of the same materials, - - -	2,052,120
3. Instruments and machinery manufactured, 186,650	
Carding, fulling, and floor cloths stamped by machinery, - - - - -	5,957,816
	6,144,466
4. Hats of wool, fur, &c. and of mixtures, - - -	4,323,744
5. Manufactures of iron, - - - - -	14,364,526
6. Manufactures of gold, silver, set work, mixed metals, &c. -	2,483,912
7. Manufactures of lead, - - - - -	325,560
8. Soap, tallow, candles, wax, and spermaceti, spring and whale oil, - - - - -	1,766,292
9. Manufactures of hides and skins, - - - - -	17,935,477
10. Manufactures from seeds, - - - - -	858,509
11. Grain, fruit, and case liquors, distilled and fermented, -	16,528,207
12. Dry manufactures from grain, exclusively of flour, meal, &c. - - - - -	75,765
13. Manufactures of wood, - - - - -	5,554,708
14. Manufactures of essences and oils, of and from wood, -	179,150
15. Refined or manufactured sugar, - - - - -	1,415,724
16. Manufactures of paper, pasteboard, cards, &c. - - -	1,939,285
17. Manufactures of marble, stone, and slate, - - -	462,115
18. Glass manufactures, - - - - -	1,047,004
19. Earthen manufactures, - - - - -	259,720
20. Manufactures of tobacco, - - - - -	1,260,378
21. Drugs, dye stuffs, paints, and dyeing, - - - - -	500,382
22. Cables and cordage, - - - - -	4,243,168
23. Manufactures of hair, - - - - -	129,731
24. Various and miscellaneous manufactures, - - -	4,347,601
Total, - - - - -	127,694,602

The articles which have been considered as of a doubtful nature, in relation to manufactures, are work done by cotton presses, wheat-mills, grist-mills, fulling-mills, mills for pearled barley, wind-mills, clover-seed mills, horse-mills, hemp-mills,

mahogany saw-mills, common saw-mills, maple tree, sugar camps, cane planters' sugar-works, also molasses, rosin and pitch, pot and pearl ashes, slate quarries, brick kilns, tiles, salt-petre caves, indigo works, red ochre, yellow ochre, fisheries, lime-kilns, plaster of Paris mills, tobacco hogsheads.

The total value of manufactures exported in 1812 was estimated at 1,841,000 dollars, and in 1817 at 2,847,695 dollars.

COMMERCE.

Mr. Pitkin, in his invaluable work upon the Statistics of the United States, has given the most ample information on this important subject; and to which we refer such of our readers as wish to obtain a minute and detailed account of the rise and progress of the different branches of trade. Another American writer says, 'In commerce and navigation, the progress of the United States has been rapid beyond example. Besides the natural advantages of excellent harbours, extensive inland bays, and navigable rivers, it has been greatly in favour of their commerce, that it has not been fettered by monopolies or exclusive privileges. Goods or merchandise circulate through all the states free of duty, and a full drawback, or restitution of duties of importation, is granted upon articles exported to a foreign port, in the course of the year in which they have been imported. Commerce is considered by all those engaged in it as a most honourable employment. In the sea-port towns, the richest members of society are merchants. Youths of sixteen are sent abroad as factors, or supercargoes, to every commercial country, intrusted with the management of great concerns. Stimulated by the prospect of independence, they study the manufactures and markets of foreign states; the quality, value, and profits of every commercial article; while the youth of other countries, of the same age and rank, have not formed a thought of a provision for future life. Maritime and commercial business is executed with more celerity and less expence than in any other country. Vessels in the ports of the United States are laden and unladen in the course of a few days; whilst in those of other countries, as many months

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are required for the same purposes, owing to tedious regulations and less enterprise. Merchant vessels are built and prepared for sea in the course of four or five months, and they sail faster than those of any other country. We have seen it announced in an American newspaper, that, on the 11th of April, 1814, a ship was launched at Vergennes, on lake Champlain, of 180 feet keel, measuring 500 tons; the timber of which was cut down in the forest the 2d of March preceding. The Peacock, of 18 guns, was built at New York in 18 days. The Wasp, at Portsmouth, in 20 days. The Superior, of 64 guns, on lake Ontario, in 30 days. The schooners constructed at Baltimore, and known by the name of "pilot-boat schooners," have often sailed with a cargo from an American to an English or French port in 17 or 18 days. The American seamen are extremely active and enterprising. Sloops of 60 tons, and eleven men, have sailed from Albany, (160 miles up the Hudson's river,) to the coast of China. The first of this description which arrived there was believed by the natives of the country to be the long-boat of a large merchant vessel, which they vainly looked for during several days. Nantucket sloops of 80 tons, with ten men, double cape Horn, and pursue the whale fishery in the South Seas. With similar vessels, numerous voyages have been made from the port of New York to the cold regions of southern Georgia, for the skins and oil of seals and sea-elephants. The American whalemén, after visiting the south-western coast of New Holland, and California, the Malouin, or Falkland, and other isles, touch for refreshments at the Cape of Good Hope, at the Sandwich islands, or ports of Chili. A commerce with the Fegée islands has been carried on by small vessels in trifling articles of hardware, which they exchanged for sandal-wood; and with this article they proceeded to Canton, where it was sold for the purpose of incense in religious ceremonies, at the rate of 400 dollars per ton. The American pilot-boats have lately visited the ports of Santa Fe, Caraccas, and Buenos Ayres, for the commerce in dollars and raw materials. Without any previous knowledge of routes, winds, tides, or harbours, the American whalemén and pilot-boat seamen have visited every

coast, and, to the astonishment of Europe, have made shorter voyages than old and experienced navigators. Falkland's island, which seemed too remote and romantic an object for the grasp of national ambition, is but a stage and resting place in the progress of their victorious industry. "No sea but what is vexed with their fisheries, no climate that is not witness to their toils." Since the commencement of the war in 1812, the American public and private armed vessels have visited every sea, from Kamschatka to the Irish channel, and have captured British merchant ships at the very mouths of British harbours. The great injury done to the commerce of England during that war, notwithstanding her powerful navy, bears strong testimony to the activity and enterprise of American seamen. More than 1700 of her vessels were captured during the course of the war; and it has been stated, that only one out of three American vessels employed in commerce were taken by the English during the same period. The state of European warfare, from the year 1802 to 1812, gave to America almost all the carrying trade, or freight of the commercial world, valued at ten per cent. upon the capital. The United States also gained five per cent. by exchange, so that the annual profits of commerce and foreign navigation have been estimated at fifteen per cent. upon the capital.

Summary of the Value of Exports from each State in 1817.

STATES.	Domestic.	Foreign.	Total.
New Hampshire,	170,599	26,825	197,424
Vermont,	918,201		918,201
Massachusetts,	5,908,416	6,009,581	11,927,997
Rhode Island,	577,911	372,556	950,467
Connecticut,	574,230	29,849	604,139
New York,	18,660,733	5,046,700	18,707,433
New Jersey,	5,849		5,849
Pennsylvania,	5,538,008	3,197,589	8,735,597
Delaware,	38,771	6,083	44,854
Maryland,	5,887,884	8,046,046	8,933,930
District of Columbia,	1,689,102	79,556	1,768,658

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STATE.	Domestic.	Foreign.	Total.
Virginia,	5,561,238	60,204	5,621,442
North Carolina,	955,211	1,869	956,880
South Carolina,	9,944,343	428,270	10,372,613
Georgia,	8,530,331	259,883	8,790,714
Ohio,	7,749		7,749
Louisiana,	8,241,254	783,558	9,024,812
Michigan territory,	64,228		64,228
Mississippi do.	43,887		43,887

These exports in 1817 were:—

	Domestic.	Foreign.
To the northern countries of Europe,	3,823,563	2,790,408
Dominions of the Netherlands,	3,397,775	2,387,543
do. of Great Britain,	41,431,168	2,037,074
do. of France,	9,717,423	2,717,395
do. of Spain,	4,530,156	3,898,780
do. of Portugal,	1,501,237	333,586
To all other countries,	3,907,178	5,198,283
	<u>68,313,500</u>	<u>19,358,069</u>

In the year 1808, the tonnage of the United States was 1,227,000, and the number of seamen 50,000. In 1816, the tonnage amounted to 1,372,218. In the same year, the tonnage of vessels built in the states amounted to 181,667. In 1816, there was employed in the foreign trade 700,035 tons of American vessels, and 212,501 of foreign vessels, of which 142,710 tons belonged to Britain.

The proceeds of the customs in 1811 was 36,303,231 dollars; but in 1816 it fell to 27,569,769 dollars. The nett revenue of 3260 post-offices in 1816 amounted to 155,579 dollars. The extent of the post roads was 48,976 miles.

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707,433
5,840
735,592
44,854
933,930
768,658

Duties payable by Law on all Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, imported into the United States of America, commencing on the 30th June, 1816.

Alum, 1 dollar per cwt.

Ale, beer, and porter, in bottles, 15 cents per gallon.

Ale, beer, and porter, imported otherwise than in bottles, 10 do.

Almonds, 3 cents per lb.

Anchors, 1 dollar 50 cents per cwt.

Animals imported for breed, free.

Antimony, regulus of, do.

Apparatus, philosophical, instruments, books, maps, charts, statues, busts, casts, paintings, drawings, engravings, specimens of sculpture, cabinets of coins, gems, medals, and all other collections of antiquities, statuary, modelling, painting, drawing, etching, or engraving, specially imported by order, and for the use of any society, incorporated for philosophical or literary purposes, free.

Arms, fire and side, and muskets, 20 per cent. ad val.

Articles imported for the use of the United States, free.

Brass wire, and articles of which brass is the material of chief value, 20 per cent. ad val.

Brass, old, free.

Bristles, 3 cents per lb.

Blank books, 30 per cent. ad val.

Bonnets and caps for women, 30 do.

Boots, 1 dollar 50 cents per pair.

Bottles, black glass quart, 1 dollar 44 cents per gross.

Bristol stones, or paste work, and all articles composed wholly or chiefly of gold, silver, pearl, and precious stones, 7½ per cent. ad val.

Buckles of all kinds, 20 do.

Buttons, and button moles, 20 do.

Brushes, 30 do.

Burrstones, unwrought, free.

Bullion, and gold and silver coin, free.

Cabinet wares, and all manufactures of wood, 30 per cent. ad val.

Cables and cordage, tarred, 3 cents per lb.

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- Candles of tallow, 3 do.
 ——— of wax and spermaceti, 6 do.
 Cannon, 20 per cent. ad val.
 Carriages of all descriptions, and parts thereof, 30 do.
 Cards, playing, 30 cents per pack.
 Canes, walking sticks, and whips, 30 per cent. ad val.
 Capers, 30 do.
 Cassia, Chinese, 6 cents per lb.
 Cheese, 9 do.
 China ware, 20 per cent. ad val.
 Chocolate, 3 cents per lb.
 Cinnamon and cloves, 25 do.
 Clay, unwrought, free.
 Coal, 5 cents per heaped bushel.
 Cocoa, 2 do. per lb.
 Coffee, 5 do.
 Cordage, untarred, yams, twines, packthread, and seines, 4 do.
 Comfits, or sweetmeats preserved in sugar or brandy, 30 per cent. ad val.
 Copper and brass in plates, pigs, and bars, suited to the sheathing of ships, free.
 Copper, articles manufactured of, or of which copper is the material of chief value, 20 per cent. ad val.
 Copper rods, bolts, spikes, or nails, and composition rods, bolts, spikes, or nails, 4 cents per lb.
 Copper, in any shape, for the use of the mint, free.
 Copper, old, fit only to be remanufactured, free.
 Copperas, 100 cents per cwt.
 Cork tree, bark of, manufactured, free.
 Cotton, 3 cents per lb.
 Cotton manufactures of all descriptions, or of which cotton is the material of chief value; and on cotton twist, yarn, or thread, as follows: for 3 years next ensuing the 30th June, 1816, a duty of 25 per cent. ad val.
 Cotton, after the expiration of the 3 years aforesaid, a duty of 20 do.
 Cosmetics, 30 do.
 Clothing ready made, 30 do.

Currants, 8 cents per lb.
 Cutlery, 20 per cent. ad val.
 Drugs for dyeing, and materials for composing dyes, not sub-
 ject to other rates of duty, $7\frac{1}{2}$ do.
 Duck, Russia, not exceeding 52 archeens each piece, 2 dollars
 per piece.
 Duck, Ravens, do. 1 dollar 25 cents do.
 Duck, Holland, do. 2 dollars 50 cents do.
 Earthenware, 20 per cent. ad val.
 Embroidery, $7\frac{1}{2}$ do.
 Epaulettes, $7\frac{1}{2}$ do.
 Fans, 20 do.
 Feathers, and other ornaments for head dresses, 20 do.
 Figs, 8 cents per lb.
 Fish, foreign caught, 100 cents per quintal.
 Fish, mackerel, 1 dollar 50 cents per barrel.
 Fish, salmon, 200 cents do.
 — all other pickled, 100 d
 Flowers, artificial, 30 per cent. ad val.
 Floorcloths, painted, 20 do.
 Furs, of every kind, undressed, free.
 Glass, window, not above 8 by 10 inches, 2 dollars 50 cents
 per 100 square feet.
 Glass, not above 10 by 12, 2 dollars 70 cents do.
 Glass, above 10 by 12, 3 dollars 25 cents do.
 Gold leaf, 15 per cent. ad val.
 Goods, wares, and merchandise, not free, and not subject to
 any other rate of duty, 15 do.
 Glue, 5 cents per lb.
 Gunpowder, 8 do.
 Gum Arabic, and gum Senegal, $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. ad val.
 Hairpowder, 8 cents per lb.
 Hats or caps of wool, fur, leather, chip, straw, or silk, 20 per
 cent. ad val.
 Hemp, 15 per cent. ad val.
 Hides and skins, raw, free.
 Indigo, 15 cents per lb.
 Iron or steel ware, not exceeding No. 18, 5 do.

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- Iron or steel ware, over No. 18, 9 do.
 Iron sheets, rods, and hoops, 2 dollars 50 cents per cwt.
 Iron bars and bolts, excepting iron manufactured by rolling,
 45 cents do.
 Iron bars and bolts when manufactured by rolling, and on
 anchors, 1 dollar 50 cents do.
 Iron, cast, and all manufactures of which iron is the material
 of chief value, 30 per cent. ad val.
 Jewellery, $7\frac{1}{2}$ do.
 Laces, $7\frac{1}{2}$ do.
 — of gold and silver, $7\frac{1}{2}$ do.
 Lace veils, lace shawls, or shades of thread or silk, $7\frac{1}{2}$ do.
 Lapis calaminaris, free.
 Leather, and all manufactures of leather, or of which leather
 is the material of chief value, 30 per cent. ad val.
 Lead in pigs, bars, or sheets, 1 cent per lb.
 Lead, manufactures of, or of which lead is the chief article,
 20 per cent. ad val.
 Lead, red and white, dry, or ground in oil, 3 cents per lb.
 Mace, 100 cents per lb.
 Mats of grass or flags, 30 per cent. ad val.
 Millinery of all sorts, 30 do.
 Molasses, 5 cents per gallon.
 Mustard, 30 per cent. ad val.
 Nails, 3 cents per lb.
 Needles, 20 per cent. ad val.
 Nutmegs, 60 cents per lb.
 Ochre, dry, 1 cent per lb.
 — in oil, $1\frac{1}{2}$ cent.
 Oil, olive, in cask, 25 cents per gallon.
 Oil, spermaceti, foreign fishing, 25 do.
 Oil, whale and other fish, do. 15 do.
 Olives, and salad oil, 30 per cent. ad val.
 Paper of every description, 30 do.
 Paper hangings, 30 do.
 Parchment and pasteboards, 30 do.
 Pewter manufactures, 2 do.
 — old, free.

Pepper, 8 cents per lb.
 Perfumes, washes, balsams, 30 per cent. ad val.
 Pimento, 6 cents per lb.
 Pickles, 30 per cent. ad val.
 Pins, 20 do.
 Plums and prunes, 3 cents per lb.
 Plaster of Paris, free.
 Porcelain and glass manufactures, other than window glass,
 and black quart bottles, 20 per cent. ad val.
 Precious stones and pearls of all kinds, set or not set, $7\frac{1}{2}$ do.
 Prussian blue, 20 do.
 Raisins, Muscatel, and raisins in jars and boxes, 8 cents per lb.
 Raisins, other kinds of, 2 do.
 Rags of any kind of cloth, free.
 Saddles, bridles, and harness, 30 per cent. ad val.
 Salt, 20 cents per bushel of 56 lb.
 Saltpetre, $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. ad val.
 Sail or hempen cloth, except Russian and German linen, and
 duck, 20 do.
 Segars, 2 dollar. 50 cents per 1000.
 Shoes and slippers of silk, 30 cents per pair.
 Shoes and slippers of leather, 25 do.
 Shoes and slippers for children, 15 do.
 Shot manufactured of lead, 2 cents per lb.
 Specimens in natural history, botany, mineralogy, anatomical
 preparations, models of machinery, and other inventions,
 plants, and trees, free.
 Silver ware, $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. ad val.
 — lace, $7\frac{1}{2}$ do.
 Snuff, 12 cents per lb.
 Spirits from grain, first proof, 42 cents per gallon.
 Spirits from grain, second proof, 45 do.
 Spirits from grain, third proof, 48 do.
 Spirits from grain, fourth proof, 52 do.
 Spirits from grain, fifth proof, 60 do.
 Spirits from grain, above fifth proof, 75 do.
 From other materials, first and second proof, 38 do.
 From other materials, third proof, 42 do.

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UNITED STATES.

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From other materials, fourth proof, 48 do.
 From other materials, fifth proof, 57 do.
 From other materials, above fifth proof, 70 do.
 Spikes, 2 cents per lb.
 Steel, 1 dollar per cwt.
 — manufactures, or of which steel is the article of chief value, 20 per cent. ad val.
 Stockings of wool or cotton, 20 do.
 Stoneware, 20 do.
 Soap, 3 cents per lb.
 Sugar, brown, 8 do.
 — white, clayed, or powdered, 4 do.
 — lump, 10 do.
 — loaf, and sugar-candy, 12 do.
 Sulphur, or brimstone, free.
 Tallow, 1 cent per lb.
 Teas from China in ships or vessels of the United States,
 Tea, Bohea, 12 cents per lb.
 Tea, Souchong, and other black, 25 do.
 Tea, imperial, gunpowder, and gomee, 50 do.
 Tea, hyson, and young hyson, 40 do.
 Tea, hyson, skin, and other green, 28 do.
 Teas from any other place, or in any other than ships or vessels of the United States,
 Tea, Bohea, 14 do.
 Tea, Souchong, and other black, 34 do.
 Tea, imperial, gunpowder, and gomee, 68 do.
 Tea, hyson, and young hyson, 56 do.
 Tea, hyson, skin, and other green, 38 do.
 Tin manufactures, or of which tin is the material of chief value, 20 per cent. ad val.
 Tin in pigs or bars, free.
 Tobacco manufactured other than snuff and segars, 10 cents per lb.
 Types for printing, 20 per cent. ad val.
 Umbrellas and parasols, or sticks and frames for either, 30 per cent. ad val.
 Vellum, 30 do.

Wafers, 80 do.
 Wares, gilt, plated, and japanned, 80 per cent. ad val.
 Watches, gold, silver, and other, and parts of watches, 7½ do.
 Wearing apparel, and other personal baggage in actual use,
 and the implements or tools of trade of persons arriving in
 the United States, free.
 Wines, Madeira, Burgundy, Champaigne, Rhenish, and To-
 kay, 100 cents per gallon.
 Wines, Sherry and St. Lucar, 60 do.
 Wines, on other wine not enumerated, when imported in
 bottles or cases, 70 do.
 Wines, Lisbon, Oporto, and other wines of Portugal and
 Sicily, 50 do.
 Wines, Teneriffe, Fayal, and other wines of the Western
 islands, 40 do.
 Wine, all other, when imported otherwise than in cases and
 bottles, 25 do.
 Whiting and Paris white, 1 cent per lb.
 Wood, unmanufactured, of any kind, free.
 Wood, Nicaragua, Barilla, Brazil-wood, Braziletto, red-wood,
 cam-wood, fustic, log-wood, and other dye-woods, free.
 Woollen manufactures of all descriptions, or of which wool is
 the material of chief value, excepting blankets, woollen rags,
 and worsted or stuff goods, after the 30th June, 1816, un-
 til the 30th June, 1819, pay a duty of 25 per cent. ad val.
 Wood, on the same after June, 1819, 20 do.
 Zinc, teutanague, or spelter, free.

A commercial treaty, formed between England and the
 United States, was signed the 3d of July, 1815, to remain in
 force during four years, according to which each country is to
 enjoy reciprocal freedom of commerce. No higher duties to
 be imposed than those which extend to all other nations, in
 relation to articles imported and exported, and the vessels
 which carry them to be subject to the same duties, and en-
 titled to the same bounties. Drawbacks to a foreign nation
 to be regulated by the parties respectively. The trade with
 the East Indies to be free for American vessels, which are to

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be treated as vessels of the most favoured nation, entitled to go from one port to another with the original cargo, or part thereof, and to touch for refreshments at the Cape of Good Hope, the island of St. Helena, or other places in the African or Indian seas. The American trade to be excluded from the West Indies; and the privilege of fishing, and of drying the fish within the British jurisdiction, granted by the treaty of peace of 1783, to cease entirely. With regard to consuls, the laws and statutes of each country to be strictly observed. The consul to be approved or admitted by the government to which he is sent, but subject to its laws, and punishable for illegal or improper conduct; or to be sent back, the offended government assigning to the other the reasons for this proceeding; each country reserving, at pleasure, particular places free from consular residence. The contracting parties to put an end to hostilities with the Indians, and to restore them all the possessions, rights, and privileges, which they enjoyed in 1811, provided they observe a peaceable conduct.

An act concerning the navigation of the United States, sanctioned by congress the 1st of March, 1817, and to operate from the 1st of October following, is as follows: No goods, wares, or merchandise, are to be imported into the United States from any foreign port or place, except in vessels of the United States, or in foreign vessels truly and wholly belonging to the citizens or subjects of that country of which the goods are the growth, production, or manufacture, or from which such goods, wares, or merchandise, can only be, or most usually are, first shipped for transportation. But this regulation is not to extend to the vessels of any foreign nation which has not adopted a similar regulation. The infringement of this act to involve the forfeiture of the vessel and cargo. 2. The bounty and allowance granted to the owners of boats and vessels engaged in the fisheries to be paid to those only of which the officers, and at least three-fourths of the crew, are citizens of the United States, or persons not the subjects of any foreign prince or state. The proof to be exhibited to the collector of the district to which the boat or vessel belongs. 3. No goods, wares, or merchandise, to be imported in foreign

vessels from one port of the United States to another. 4. A duty of 50 cents per ton to be paid upon every ship or vessel of the United States which shall be entered in the district of one state from that of another. The exceptions are: 1. An adjoining state on the sea-coast, or a navigable river or lake. 2. Coasting vessels going from Long island, in the state of New York, to the state of Rhode island, or the contrary, with a cargo taken in one state to be delivered in another. 3. Vessels having a license to trade between the different districts, or to carry on the bank or whale fisheries more than once a year. 4. If it be proved, to the satisfaction of the collector, that three-fourths of the crew are American citizens, or persons not the subjects of any foreign prince or state, the duty to be only six cents per ton. 5. Every ship or vessel entered in the United States from any foreign port or place, of which the officers, and at least two-thirds of the crew, are not proven to be American citizens, or person not the subjects of any foreign prince or state, to pay 50 cents per ton. In a circular letter, issued from the treasury department, for the purpose of explaining and enforcing this measure, 'the term country is considered as embracing all the possessions of a foreign state, of which the productions and manufactures may be imported into the United States in vessels owned by the citizens or subjects of such state, without regard to their place of residence within its possessions.' Gold and silver coin and bullion are not considered as goods, wares, and merchandise; and may be imported in foreign vessels, without regard to the place of production or coinage.

The chambers of commerce of the ports of the United States receive and pass gold and silver coin at the rates established by the banks. Bills of exchange drawn upon any part of Europe, and returned protested for non-payment, are paid on demand, with 20 per cent. of damages, at the current exchange then given for bills on the place drawn upon. Bills of exchange drawn upon any of the West India islands, Newfoundland, or the foreign possessions in America, and returned protested for non-payment, are subject to ten per cent. damages on demand, with the amount of the bill. When no

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special agreement exists, the following commissions are charged: *Inland Commissions.*—On sales, exclusive of storage, two and a half per cent.; on returns from a state to any part of the United States, two and a half per cent. *Foreign Commissions.*—On sales, exclusive of storage, five per cent.; on returns, if in produce, five; on returns, if in cash or bills, two and a half; on making insurance, one half; on recovering losses, two and a half; on outfit of vessel, five; on soliciting and procuring freight, five; on collecting freight, two and a half.

In 1817, the value of flour and wheat exported was 17,968,000 dollars; the produce of the forests, 6,484,000 dollars; the cotton of domestic growth, 22,628,000 dollars; the tobacco, 9,511,000 dollars; and the produce of the sea, 1,671,000 dollars.

CANALS AND TURNPIKE ROADS.

The United States possess the advantages of inland navigation in a remarkable degree. Many of the large rivers are navigable almost to their sources, and some of them, which have their efflux at points remote from one another, are only separated by short portages at particular parts of their course. Several of the rivers have a sufficient depth of water generally for boats, but have their channels obstructed by rocks and falls at certain places. By running canals over the spaces where these portages and obstructions occur, the most distant sections of the Union may be united by a system of water communications; and where this is impracticable, the transportation of commodities may still be much facilitated by forming good roads. This subject occupied much attention in the early part of Mr. Jefferson's administration; and Mr. Gallatin, at the request of the senate, drew up a report on this subject, which was presented to that body in 1806. The outlines of the plan of internal communication suggested in the report are as follows:

1. Canals from north to south, in a direction parallel to the sea-coast, which would open a communication for sea-vessels

from Massachusetts to North Carolina, extending along all the principal capes, except cape Fear, a distance of more than two-thirds of the Atlantic coast. The expence is estimated at three millions of dollars.

2. A great turnpike road from Maine to Georgia, extending along the Atlantic coast, a distance of 1600 miles. The expences are calculated at 3000 dollars per mile, making, with the former charge, 7,800,000 dollars.

3. A communication from east to west across the mountains, between the Atlantic and western rivers; and, for this purpose, to improve the navigation of the great Atlantic rivers, by constructing parallel canals and locks when necessary. The expence is estimated at 1,500,000 dollars. It is also proposed to form four turnpike roads from the four great western rivers, the Alleghany, Monongahela, Kenhawa, and Tennessee, to the nearest corresponding Atlantic rivers, to the Susquehannah, or Juniata, the Patomak, James river, and either the Santee or Savannah. The distance of each route is about 100 miles, which, at the estimated expence of 7000 dollars per mile, (the road being through a mountainous country,) amounts to 2,800,000 dollars. The construction of a canal along the falls of the Ohio is also recommended, and a company has lately been incorporated for carrying it through. The construction of roads to Detroit, St. Louis, and New Orleans, is also recommended, of which the cost is estimated at 200,000 dollars; the whole expence of all this extent of communication amounting to 4,800,000 dollars.

4. Inland navigation, in a northern and north-western direction, between the Atlantic sea-coast and the great lakes, and the St. Lawrence, of which the expence is estimated at 12,600,000 dollars. The chain of mountains known by the name of Alleghany, or Apalaches, of which the mean breadth is somewhat more than 100 miles, and their elevation about 3000 feet above the level of the sea, render a direct communication impracticable; but, on the north, it can easily be formed by the circuitous route of the Mohawk valley and lake Ontario; and, on the south, by the way of Georgia and the rivers which open on the gulf of Mexico. The expence of the in-

land navigation is estimated to lake Ontario and rapids Michigan. The whole 18,600,000 3,400,000 dollars. It has been planned could be completed in two million years.

Of Turnpikes.
Of turnpikes in the eastern, eastern turnpikes 11,500,000 In 1813 the authorized, by transportation expence do adjacent post-tion, and in 1809, 200 was 21,840, of the yearly 3,057,964 m in this inter-establishment

The general seat of the federal post-master-general such places as observed, that

UNITED STATES.

land navigation between the North river and lake Champlain is estimated at 800,000 dollars; canals from the North river to lake Ontario at 2,200,000 dollars; canals along the falls and rapids of Niagara, opening a sloop navigation from lake Ontario to the upper lakes as far as the extremities of lake Michigan, a million of dollars; in all, four millions of dollars. The whole amount for general improvements is estimated at 16,600,000 dollars; and for those of a local nature, at 2,400,000; making an aggregate of twenty millions of dollars. It has been suggested, that, in time of peace, this great plan could easily be executed by the annual appropriation of two millions of dollars of the existing revenues for the space of ten years.

Of Turnpike Roads.—Since the year 1800, a great number of turnpike roads have been formed, particularly in the northern, eastern, and the middle states. The capital of all the turnpikes and canals in the United States, in 1809, was 11,500,000 dollars; that of toll bridges, 5,600,000 dollars. In 1813 the post-master-general of the United States was authorised, by an act of congress, to contract for the regular transportation of the mail in steam-boats, provided that the expence do not exceed what is paid for it by stages on the adjacent post-roads, taking into consideration distance, expedition, and frequency. In 1801, there were 957 post-offices; in 1809, 2000. At the former period, the length of post-roads was 21,840, at the latter, 34,000 miles. In 1801, the amount of the yearly transportation of mails in the United States was 3,057,964 miles; in 1809, 4,962,516. The post-roads, within this interval, have increased nearly 45 per cent., and the establishment of mail coaches nearly 70 per cent.

POST-OFFICE ESTABLISHMENT.

The general post-office is established at Washington, the seat of the federal government, and is under the direction of a post-master-general, who is authorised to establish branches in such places as he may deem expedient. In his report it is observed, that the expences of the office, in 1808 and 1809,

during the suspension of foreign commerce, had exceeded the amount of postage due to the United States, by nearly 7000 dollars, which was defrayed out of the proceeds of previous years.

The two great postage roads are, 1. That which extends from Robinstown, on the north-eastern extremity of the coast of the United States, to St. Mary's, on the south-eastern extremity; and, 2. The road which extends from Washington to New Orleans. The length of the first is 1738, that of the second, 1233 miles.

The mail travels on the great roads at the rate of from 60 to 120 miles a day; on the cross roads its progress is about 40 miles in the same time.

The following regulations concerning this establishment were adopted by an act of the American congress, on the 9th of April, 1816.

	Miles.	Cents.
<i>Rates of Postage.</i> —Letter of one sheet,	30	6
	80	10
	150	12½
	400	18½
Any greater distance,		25
Double letter, the double of those rates.		
Triple letter, the triple.		

	Miles.
The yearly transportation of the mail in stages amounts to	2,411,760
Ditto on sulkies and on horseback,	3,180,892

Total, 5,592,652

Averaging one office to fifteen miles and a half of post-road.

FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

The *president* and *vice-president* of the United States are elected for the term of four years, commencing on the 4th day of March, and necessarily remain at Washington during the session of congress; but, during the recess, they retire to their usual places of residence. The president, when at the seat of government, lives in the house destined for him, which is fur-

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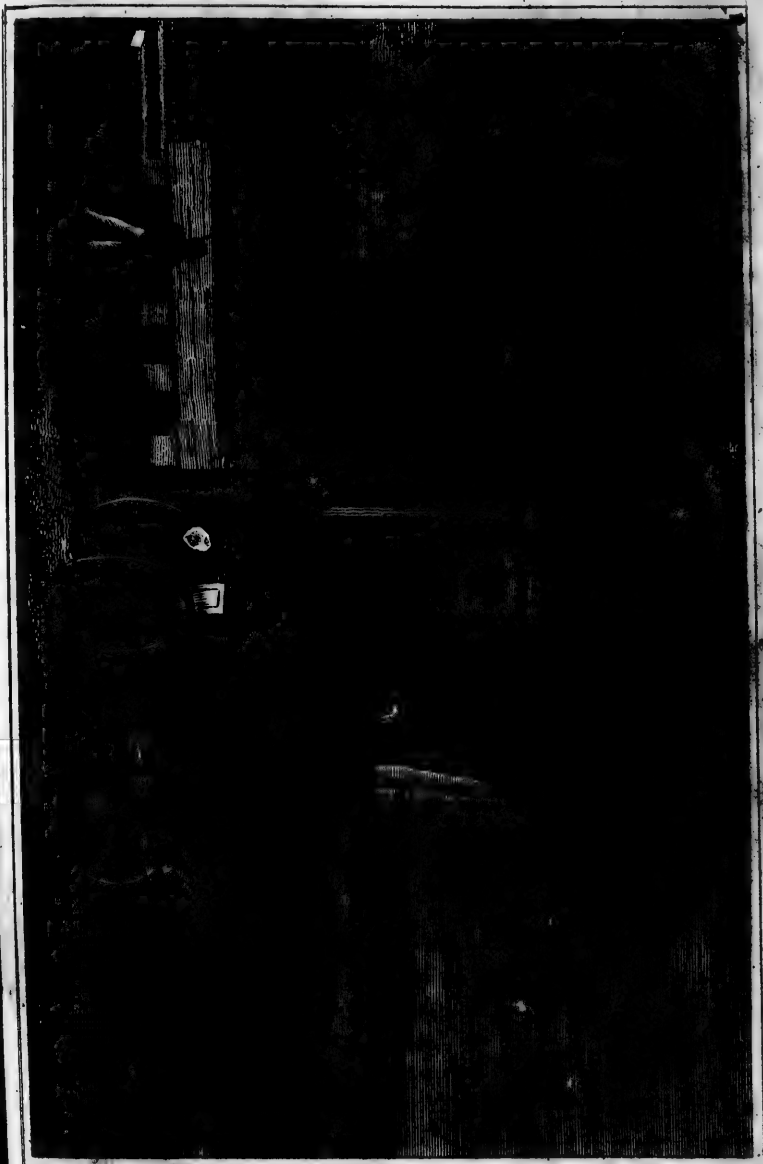
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nished at the expence of the nation. The vice-president, who is president of the senate, has no similar mark of distinction, but lodges at an inn, or private house, like other members of congress. The yearly salary of the former is 25,000 dollars; that of the latter 5000 only; but he is not subject to any extraordinary expence, while the president, according to established custom, spends more than his salary in the expences of his table.

In case of the death, resignation, or removal of the president from office, his powers devolve upon the vice-president.

The president is commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and also of the militia, when called into actual service.

He is authorised to require, when he thinks proper, the written opinion of any of the chief officers of the executive departments, upon any subject which has relation to the duties of their respective offices.

Except in cases of impeachment, he is authorised to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States.

He is empowered, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, to make treaties, to appoint ambassadors, ministers, and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all military and other officers, whose appointments are not otherwise provided for by law. His appointment or decision must be approved by two-thirds of the senators present in congress.

He has also power to fill up vacancies during the recess of the senate, which, during the next session, are submitted to their decision.

On extraordinary occasions, he may convene or adjourn either or both houses of congress.

He is authorised by usage, though not by the constitution, to suspend, annul, or revoke the powers of a minister, consul, or other officer, without the advice of the senate, and even without giving any reason for such suspension or removal. The president himself, or any other officer of the United States, may be removed from office for treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanours, for which they must previously be impeached and convicted.

All commissions are signed by the president and secretary of state.

The national council is composed of these two officers, and the heads of the treasury, war, navy, and post-office establishment.

The *Congress of the United States*, in whom all legislative powers are vested, consists of a senate and house of representatives.

The members of the *house of representatives* are chosen by the people every second year. They must have attained the age of 25, and been citizens of the United States during the same space of time, and inhabitants of the state in which they are elected. The number of representatives for the year 1815 is 187, or nearly one representative for every 40,000 persons, according to the last census. When the number shall amount to 200, it is so regulated, that there shall not be more than one for every 50,000 persons.

Vacancies are filled by writs of election, issued by the executive authority.

The house of representatives choose their speaker and other officers, and have the sole power of impeachment.

The *senate* is composed of two senators from each state, chosen by the legislature of that state for the term of six years; and the seats are so vacated, that one-third are chosen every second year. A senator must be 30 years of age, nine years a citizen of the United States, and an inhabitant of the state in which he is elected. The present number of senators is 38.

The president of the senate has no vote, unless the votes be equally divided.

The senate has the sole power of trying all impeachments. In case of the trial of the chief magistrate, the chief justice is to preside.

Senators and members of the house of representatives receive a compensation of eight dollars per day during the session, besides travelling expences, fixed at the rate of a day's pay for every 20 miles.

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Pay of the Officers of the General Government.—In pursuance of a resolution of congress, of the 27th of April, 1816, the secretary of state is required to compile and print, once in every two years, a register of all officers and agents, civil, military, and naval, in the service of the United States, exhibiting the amount of compensation, pay, and emoluments allowed to each, the state or country in which he was born, and the place of employment. The secretary of the navy is to furnish the name, force, and condition of all the ships and vessels belonging to the United States, and the place and date of their construction. This register is to be made up to the last day of September of each year, before the opening of the new congress. Five hundred copies are to be printed, and to be distributed among the members of congress and heads of the departments of the general government.

This work is entitled, *A Register of Officers and Agents, Civil, Military, and Naval, in the service of the United States, on the 30th of September, (1816;)* together with the names, force, and condition of all the Ships and Vessels belonging to the United States, and when and where built.

	Dollars per an.		Dollars per an.
President of the United States, -	25,000	Additional Accountant,	2,000
Vice president, -	5,000	Superintendent-general of military supplies,	3,000
Secretary of state,	5,000	Secretary of navy,	4,500
Secretary of the treasury,	5,000	Three navy commissioners, each,	3,500
Comptroller, -	3,500	Accountant of navy,	2,300
Auditor, -	3,000	Postmaster-general,	3,000
Register, -	3,000	Secretary of senate,	3,000
Treasurer, -	3,000	Clerk of house of repres.	3,000
Commissioner of revenue,	3,000	Commissioner of claims,	2,000
Commissioner of land office,	3,000	Superintendent of Indian trade, -	2,000
Secretary of war departm.	4,500		
Paymaster-general,	2,500		
Accountant, -	2,000		

	Dollars per an.
The governors of the four territories, Mississippi, Missouri, Illinois, and Michigan, each,	2,000
The secretaries, each	1,000

	Dollars per an.
Chief justice,	4,000
Six associate justices,	3,500
Attorney-general,	3,000
Clerk,	fees, &c.

Seven ambassadors to the following states:—England, France, Russia, the Netherlands, Spain, Portugal, and Sweden, each 9000 dollars, with an allowance of 9000 for outfit. Six secretaries of legation, each 2000 dollars.

	Dollars per an.
Consul at London,	2,000
Consul in France,	2,000
Consul-general in Denmark,	2,000
Consul-general in Barbary,	4,000
Three consuls ditto, each	2,000
Director of the mint,	2,000

Commissioners of loans, five in number, whose pay is from 500 to upwards of 2000 dollars. Each has two or three clerks. Their pay varies from 500 to 1000 dollars.

Collectors of customs, 98 in number, with salaries proportionate to the trade of the place, from 150 to upwards of 7000 dollars.

TERRITORIAL GOVERNMENTS.

By the constitution and certain laws of the congress of the United States, a territory cannot be admitted into the American union until its population amounts to 60,000 free inhabitants. In the mean time, it is subject to a provisional form of government prescribed by law, which, though not emanating entirely from the choice of the inhabitants, still does not deprive them of the personal rights and privileges of freemen. The administration of the government of the territory is entrusted to a governor, appointed by the president and congress, and invested with extensive powers, similar to those of a European viceroy, for the protection of the interests of the United States, and particularly the observance of strict faith towards the Indians, in the exchange of commodities and the purchase of their lands. The act or ordinance of congress, of the 13th July, 1787, for the government of the territory north-west of the river Ohio, has served as a model for the organization of

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the temporary governments of new territories established since that epoch:

Governor.—By this act, the congress reserved to itself the power of appointing a governor for the term of three years, unless revoked before the expiration of that time, who is to reside in the district, and have therein a freehold estate of 1000 acres of land.

Secretary.—The secretary, also appointed by congress for the term of four years, with a commission liable to be revoked, was likewise obliged to reside in the district, and to have a freehold estate therein of 500 acres of land. His duty is to keep and preserve the public records, the acts and laws of the legislature, and the proceedings of the governor in his executive department, and to transmit authentic copies of all these documents, every six months, to the secretary of congress.

The *judicial authority* is vested in a court consisting of three judges, whose commissions continue in force during good behaviour. Any two of them form a court with a common law jurisdiction. It is required that each judge shall reside in the district, and be proprietor of a freehold estate of 500 acres of land, while in the exercise of his office. The governor and judges are authorised to adopt and put in force in the district, such laws of the original states, criminal and civil, as they may think suited to its circumstances, which are to continue until the organization of the general assembly, unless disapproved of by congress. The governor, who is commander-in-chief of the militia, is empowered to appoint and grant commissions to all officers therein, except general officers, who are appointed and commissioned by congress. The governor is authorised to appoint such magistrates and other civil officers, in each county or township, as he might judge necessary, until the organization of the general assembly, by which their powers and duties are to be regulated and defined. He is also authorised to make proper divisions of the district into counties and townships, for the execution of civil and criminal process. The free white male inhabitants of full age, as soon as their number amounts to 5000, are authorised to elect representatives in their counties or townships, to represent them

in the general assembly of the territory, in the proportion of one representative for every 500 inhabitants, until their number exceed 26; after which, their number and proportion are regulated by the legislature. To be eligible to this office, the person must have been a citizen of one of the United States, and a resident in the district, and if he has resided three years therein, the quality of citizen is dispensed with; but in either case, he must be proprietor, in fee simple, of 200 acres of land within the territory. To be an elector, the following qualifications are required: he must be a freeholder in the district, of 50 acres of land, a resident thereof, and a citizen of one of the states, or, what is considered as equivalent, resident for two years therein. The representatives are elected for the term of two years; and in case of death, or removal from office, their place is supplied for the residue of the term by a writ from the governor to this effect. The general assembly, or legislature, consists of a governor, legislative council, and a house of representatives. The legislative council to consist of five members, elected for five years, unless sooner removed by congress, three of whom form a quorum. The members of the council are nominated in the following manner: The representatives, after their election, assemble at a certain place indicated by the governor, and nominate ten persons, residents in the district, each possessed of a freehold of 500 acres of land, whose names are returned to congress, by whom five are appointed to serve as members for the council for the term of five years; and vacancies, in consequence of death or removal from office, are supplied by two persons nominated by the house of representatives, one of whom is appointed and commissioned by congress for the rest of the term. All bills, after having passed by a majority in the house, and also in the council, are referred to the governor for his assent, without which they remain without effect. This general assembly is convened, prorogued, and dissolved by the governor, who is obliged to take an oath or declaration of fidelity before the president of congress, and himself to require the same of all officers appointed in the district. The legislature and council are authorised to elect, by joint ballot, a delegate to congress,

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JUDICIARY.

The judiciary system of the United States is as follows: The supreme court of the United States consists of a chief judge, and six associate judges. This court holds a session annually, at the city of Washington. The states of the Union form districts, (with the exception of Massachusetts and Tennessee, each of which is divided into two,) 20 in number, and in every one of these districts there is a court named the District Court, except the state of New York, which has two, and East and West Tennessee, which have but one. These courts are held four times a year, at the two principal towns of the district alternately, except in the states of Pennsylvania and Maryland, where they are always held at the chief town of each. The United States are also divided into seven districts, and in each division there is a circuit court, which is held twice a year, under the direction of a judge of the supreme court, or the associate judge residing within the district, and the judge of that district where the court is holden. The clerk of each district court is also clerk of the circuit court within the district. The courts are created and organized by the legislature. The federal judges are appointed by the executive, with the approbation of the senate, and are not to be removed from office during good behaviour. The judges, after their appointment, allot themselves as they think proper, at the session succeeding their appointment; otherwise, they are allotted by the president of the United States until another allotment is made. The district and territorial judges are obliged, by act of congress, to reside within their districts, and not to exercise the profession or employment of attorney or lawyer. The infraction of this act constitutes a high misdemeanour. There is an attorney-general of the United States, who is the public prosecutor before the supreme court. In each district there is also an attorney and marshal, appointed by, and removable at the pleasure of the president. The su-

pernumerary marshals and district attorneys have been discontinued. The district attorney is the public prosecutor before the circuit and district courts. The marshal attends these courts, in relation to which he has the powers of a sheriff. The clerks of the courts are appointed by the respective courts.

Men in the profession of the law are very numerous in the States, and are, in general, well supported. This arises from the prevalence of a litigious spirit, which extends from the towns to the country, and has even reached new establishments in the bosom of the woods. This unfortunate disposition is thus described by an accurate and faithful observer, the late judge Cooper, in his 'History of the First Settlements in the Western Counties of New York':—'The Scotch succeed in the woods, or elsewhere, being frugal, cautious in their bargains, living within their means, and punctual in their engagements. If a Scotsman kills a calf, he will take the best part of it to market, and husband up the price of it; if he consumes any part at home, it will be the coarsest and the cheapest. The American will eat the best part himself, and if he sells any, will lay out the money upon some article of show. The odds are, that when the Scotsman buys a cow, he pays ready money, and has her for a low price. The American pays with his note, gives more, and is often sued for the payment. When this happens, his cause comes to be tried before the squire, and six jurors empannelled. Here much pettifogging skill is displayed. If the defendant has address enough to procure a note, bond, or other matter to be offered in set-off, he perhaps involves his adversary in costs to the amount of three or four dollars, and gains celebrity for his dexterity and finesse. This cunning talent, which they call outwitting, gives him such reputation and lead, that he stands fair to be chosen a petty town-officer. It is to be regretted that so mischievous a spirit of litigation should be encouraged by some of the justices, who, for the sake of a paltry fee, forget the great duty of their office, that of preserving peace; and that it should have increased, as it has done of late years, to a shameful extent. I have known more than 100 precepts

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issued in one day by some of these squires. A magistrate who becomes so ready an instrument of contention, may be considered as a living calamity. Some, however, I have known of a quite different stamp, who have carried the spirit of peace-making and benevolence so far, as to leave their own business, and travel miles for the sake of reconciling parties, and putting an end to quarrels, and who sought for no other reward than the satisfaction of doing good.'

PUBLIC REVENUE AND NATIONAL DEBT.

In time of peace the revenue of the United States is derived from two sources: 1st, From indirect taxes, or duties on tonnage, and on goods, wares, and merchandise, at the time and place of their importation. 2d, From the sale of public lands. In a state of free commercial intercourse, the first formed the great source of revenue, and was more than adequate to all the wants of the government; but in a state of war, the supply from this source was greatly diminished, and recourse was had to other sources;—to treasury notes, loans, internal taxes, and an increase of duties on imported articles. The plan of finance proposed at the commencement of the war was to provide for the expences of the war by loans, and to make the yearly revenue sufficient to defray the ordinary expences of the government, to pay the interest of the existing debt, and that of future loans. But the commercial restrictions, the stoppage of payment in *specie* by the banks, and its exportation and concealment, destroyed the circulation of notes, paralyzed the fiscal operations of the government, and obliged it to have recourse to new taxes.

In the summer of 1813, duties were laid on the following articles, to commence 1st January, 1814; and for the purpose of collecting them, each state was divided into collection districts:

1. Duties on licences for stills and boilers.
2. Duties on carriages for the conveyance of persons.
3. Duties on licences to retailers of foreign merchandise, wines, and spirituous liquors.

4. Duties on sales by auction.

5. Duties on refined sugar.

6. Duties on stamped paper of a certain description.

In the session of 1814-15, duties were laid on the following manufactured articles: pig-iron, castings, bar and rolled iron, nails, candles, hats, caps, umbrellas and parasols, paper, cards, saddles and bridles, boots and shoes, beer, ale, and porter, leather, plate, jewellery, and on household furniture, gold and silver watches. After the termination of the war, the most of these duties were repealed; those remaining in 1817 were on licences for stills and boilers, on licences to retailers, on carriages, on refined sugar, on sales by auction, on stamp paper and bank notes.

On the 2d August, 1818, a direct tax of three millions was laid on 'lands, houses, and slaves,' on the same plan as the direct tax imposed in 1798. The lands and houses with their improvements, and the slaves, were to be enumerated and valued by the respective assessors, at the rate each of them was worth in money. The proportions allotted to each state being determined by a fixed scale, any state was at liberty to assume and pay its proportion without submitting to the valuation. Several states assumed their proportions in this way.

	Dollars.
The net revenue for 1815 is stated to be	49,532,852
of which that derived from customs,	36,308,251
The revenue for 1816,	36,743,574
of which that derived from customs,	27,569,769
The direct tax and internal duties have been abolished,	
and the permanent annual revenue is estimated at	24,500,000
Namely,—Customs,	20,000,000
Internal revenue,	2,500,000
Public lands,	1,500,000
Bank dividends, and incidental rec.	500,000
	24,500,000
The expenditure for the support of the civil govern-	
ment, and the army and navy,	11,800,000
Sinking fund,	10,000,000
	21,800,000

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Progress of the Debt.—The debt of the United States, created by supplies, forced loans, and paper money, during the revolutionary war in 1783, amounted to forty-two millions of dollars; the annual interest to nearly two millions and a half. The debt contracted by each individual state was assumed by congress, and made a part of the national debt, which was to be redeemed by the proceeds of national domains; and the interest of several species of stock, transferred to the United States, and appropriated by law for this purpose, under the direction of the commissioners of the sinking fund.

According to a report of the secretary of the treasury of the 28th February, 1816, the public debt, on the 12th of February, 1816, amounted to 123,630,692 dollars, consisting of

1. The public funded debt before the war,	38,335,832
2. The public funded debt contracted since,	68,374,744
3. Floating outstanding debt,	16,920,115
	123,630,691

The sum set apart as a sinking fund since 1803 was an annual appropriation of eight millions of dollars, arising from the sale of public lands, from the interest of the debt previously extinguished, which is paid to the commissioners, in whose name the stock remains, and of as much from the proceeds of the duties of customs as makes up the balance. The amount of debt redeemed, up to 1st January, 1814, under this system, was 33,873,463; and the interest on this debt, which was passed to the credit of the commissioners in 1813, as part of the sinking fund, was 1,932,107.

On the 3d March, 1817, an act was passed, appropriating ten millions annually as a sinking fund, and discontinuing the practice of paying interest on the discharged debt to the commissioners. A further special appropriation was made for that year, amounting to nine millions, with an advance upon the next year of four millions, so that, after paying the annual interest of the debt, (amounting to about six millions,) there would be paid off seventeen millions of the debt in 1817.

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WAR DEPARTMENT.

In 1801, the regular army of the United States was reduced to a few thousand men, who were chiefly employed in the garrisons and at points on the frontiers. The militia, consisting of the adult males from 18 to 45 years of age, with the exception of clergymen, public functionaries, &c., formed the military force of the country. In 1808, rules and regulations were drawn up for the armies of the United States. The president was authorised to call upon the executive government of the several states, to organize and equip their respective proportions of a hundred thousand militia, and a million of dollars were appropriated to their pay and subsistence. The president has also the power of selecting any number for actual service, and of apportioning the field-officers among the respective states and territories. The officers are appointed by the state constitutional authorities. The militia have the same pay and subsistence as the regular army, and the period of their service is limited to six months from the time of their arrival at the place of destination. In the same year, an additional military force was raised for the term of five years, consisting of five regiments of infantry, one of riflemen, one of artillery, and one of light dragoons. During the recess of the senate, the president was authorised to appoint the inferior, but not the general officers, and such appointments were afterwards to be submitted to the senate for their advice and consent. The annual sum of 200,000 dollars was appropriated for arms and military equipments, to be distributed according to the regulations of each state or territorial legislature. In 1812, a bounty of sixteen dollars was given to each able-bodied man recruited for five years, with three months' additional pay, and 160 acres of land to non-commissioned officers and soldiers who should have faithfully performed their duty. At this time an additional military force was raised, consisting of ten regiments of infantry, two of artillery, and one of light dragoons. Laws were passed for the better organization of the army, with an increase of pay. Twenty additional regi-

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ments of cavalry were raised, and two dollars allowed to the recruiting officer for each man enlisted. It was enacted in June, 1818, that five of the regiments authorised to be raised might be engaged during the period of the war. In the month of August following it was enacted, that the widows and orphans of the militia killed in war should be entitled to a pension of half-pay for the space of five years. Disabled and non-commissioned officers were to be placed on the pension list. An advance of 24 dollars was granted to each recruit on account of pay, in addition to the existing bounty of sixteen dollars, together with 160 acres of land. The pay of the private soldier was raised from six to eight dollars per month; the premium for recruiting officers was also increased from two to four dollars. The militia-men were authorised to enlist into the regular service, without providing substitutes. Recruits were at liberty to serve during five years, or till the end of the war, with the same bounties of money and land. The president of the United States was authorised to raise ten additional companies of rangers for the protection of any state or territory threatened with invasion by the Indians, to be armed and organized as he might think proper, subject to the rules and articles of war, and entitled to the same compensation as persons serving in the military establishment. It was also enacted, that the president might accept the services of volunteers, not exceeding 50,000 in number, who might be organized and clothed as artillery, infantry, or cavalry, except that the latter were to furnish horses at their own expence; otherwise to be treated as regular troops. A law was also passed for the organization of a corps of artificers, to be attached to the quarter-master-general's department, and subject to the orders of its officers. This corps to be selected by the general from the privates of the army, or engaged from among the citizens by the superintendant for the space of three years. Thirty thousand dollars were voted for the expences of this corps. The militia were not to be subject to corporal punishment; stoppage of pay and rations were to be substituted for whipping, and the fines were to be collected by the marshal. By a law passed in 1808, no person can be a commissioned or

staff-officer who is not a citizen of the United States, or of one of their territories. In April, 1814, an act was passed to call forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, to suppress insurrections, and repel invasions. In New York, 20,000 men were raised by a species of classification; the rich being to furnish quotas of men in proportion to the extent of their fortunes. A man worth 10,000 dollars was to furnish one soldier; one worth double this sum to furnish two; and so on progressively. It was calculated that an army of 50,000 men might be recruited in this way in the course of a year, and this species of conscription met with general approbation.

In July, 1814, the executive government of certain states were invited to hold in readiness for immediate service a corps of 93,500 men, under the laws of the 28th of February, 1795, and 18th April, 1814. The detail for militia service under this requisition was as follows: State of New Hampshire, 3500 troops; Massachusetts, 10,000; Rhode Island, 500; Connecticut, 3000; New York, 13,500; New Jersey, 5000; Pennsylvania, 14,000; Delaware, 1000; Maryland, 6000; Virginia, 12,000; North Carolina, 7000; South Carolina, 5000; Georgia, 3500; Kentucky, 3500; Tennessee, 2500; Louisiana, 1000; Mississippi territory, 500.

A *military academy* was established at West point, in the state of New York, in 1809, with the view of supplying a corps of engineers. The present academical staff is composed of a superintendent of the academy, who is the senior officer of engineers; a professor of natural and experimental philosophy, of mathematics, of engineering; a teacher of the French language, and of drawing; a surgeon, chaplain, and professor of ethics. The number of cadets authorised by law is 250, and there was this number in the school in 1816.

The expences of the army, in 1810, were about two millions; in 1813, they were increased to more than fourteen millions; and the expenditure for 1814 was estimated at more than twenty-four millions and a half. The military establishment of this last year, including rangers, sea-fencibles, and troops of all descriptions, officers and men, consisted of 63,422. In the yearly expence is included ordnance, fortifications, the Indian

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department, and permanent appropriation for Indian treaties, and for arming and equipping the militia.

By an act of congress of the 3d of March, 1815, the military peace establishment was reduced to 10,000 men, consisting of the following proportions of artillery, infantry, and riflemen. 1. Artillery, 32 companies, or 8 battalions, making 3200 men. 2. Light artillery, 10 companies, or one regiment of 660 men. 3. Infantry, 80 companies, or 8 regiments, 5440 men. 4. Riflemen, 10 companies, or one regiment of 680 men. Total, 9980. The chief officers are two major-generals, with one aid-de-camp each; four brigade inspectors; four brigade quarter-masters. The departments preserved are, the ordnance department; the purchasing department; the pay department; the office of judge advocate; the hospital department; and military academy. The United States are divided into two military divisions, that of the north and of the south, each of which is subdivided into military departments.

NAVY DEPARTMENT.

The American navy is a recent creation. In 1801, it consisted of only 20 vessels. Its first success was gained in 1805, in the bombardment of Tripoli. Mr. Warden describes its progress and present state as follows.

'In 1806 and 1807, a number of gun-boats was built and equipped for the protection of the coast and harbours. In 1809, the marine corps was formed, and privates were enlisted for the term of five years. In 1812, the subject of a naval system of defence was discussed by congress; and, in consequence of the resolutions then adopted, all the frigates were equipped and put into actual service, and the gun-boats were distributed in the harbours of the maritime frontier. In 1814, laws were passed to construct, under the president's direction, four 74 gun ships, six of 44, a like number of sloops of war, and 50 barges, for the defence of the ports and harbours; and armed vessels for the service on the lakes. More than three millions of dollars were voted for this purpose; besides a hun-

dred thousand for the construction of a dock-yard, or great naval establishment, on the right bank of the Hudson or North river, just above the high lands, which form a natural defence.

‘By another law, 500,000 dollars were appropriated for the construction of floating batteries, and 250,000 for the purchase of hulks to be sunk in different harbours for their better security.

‘The government, at this period, availed itself of the newly discovered invention of the *steam-frigate*, which will probably form an era in the history of warlike operations, as it may enable a nation, with small maritime resources, to resist the most powerful naval force. This immense battery, constructed under the direction of the late Mr. Fulton, was launched at New York in the month of October, 1814. It measures 145 feet on deck, with 55 feet in breadth of beam, and draws only eight feet water. The machinery by which it moves backward or forward is placed in the centre, and is so defended by a side of six feet in thickness, that it cannot be injured by the enemy’s shot; while, by means of tubes which vomit forth volumes of boiling water, and sharp-edged instruments moving along its sides in contrary directions, the vessel bids defiance to the courage of the boldest boarders, and is considered by good judges as impregnable.

‘At the declaration of war against England in June, 1812, the whole naval force consisted of seven frigates, a few sloops of war, and other smaller vessels. In May, 1813, the American navy consisted of nine frigates, carrying from 36 to 44 guns; three ships, one block-ship, four brigs, four schooners, one yacht, four hired schooners, two block-sloops, twelve barges, and 160 gun-boats, besides the vessels for the service on the lakes; on lake Ontario, a ship, a brig, and ten schooners, a bomb and a 24 gun ship on the stocks; on lake Erie, three sloops, four gun-boats, and two sloops of war building. The English squadron captured on lake Erie was purchased by the government for the sum of 255,000 dollars, which was distributed as prize-money among the captors.

‘The American navy, in January, 1815, consisted of 28 ships of war, from 10 to 74 guns, of which seven were cap-

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tured from the enemy. The naval force on lake Ontario consisted of 19 vessels, from one to 44 guns, of which two were captured from the English. On lake Erie there were 12 vessels, from one to 18 guns, five of which were captured in one engagement. On lake Champlain there were 10 vessels, from eight to 24 guns, four of which were also taken from the English. The whole number of barges and schooners, 92; that of gun-boats, 122.

On the 29th of April, 1816, the American congress voted a million of dollars a year, during eight years, for the construction of nine ships, not to carry less than 74 guns each; 12 not to carry less than 44 each, including a 74, and three 44 gun ships, by the act of January, 1813; together with three steam-batteries for the defence of the ports and harbours.

None but citizens of the United States, or persons of colour, natives of the country, are to be employed as seamen after the war. Naturalized citizens are not to be received on board of the private or public vessels after this period, unless they produce to the commander of public ships, or the collector of customs, authentic certificates of naturalization; and by the resolution of congress of the 27th April, 1816, they must declare where they were born, or from what foreign land they came.

State of the American Navy in 1817, from the Official Accounts.

Names and Force.	When built or captured.	Where built.	State and condition.
Independence 74	1814	Boston,	In good order
Franklin 74	1815	Philadelphia,	In service
Washington 74	1816	Portsmouth,	
Chippewa 74	—	Sacket's Harbour,	On the stocks
New Orleans 74			
Plattsburg 74			
Constitution 44	1797	Boston,	Hull in good ord.
Guerriere 44	1814	Philadelphia	In service
Java 44	—	Baltimore,	Wants repairs
United States 44	1797	Philadelphia,	In service
Superior 44	—	Sacket's Harbour,	
Constellation 36	1797	Baltimore,	In service

Names and Force.		When built or captured.	Where built.	State and condition.
Congress	36	—	Porta. N. H.	
Macedonian	36	1812	England,	Hull in good ord.
Mohawk	32	1814	Sacket's Harbour,	In good order
Confiance	32	c. 1814	—	Hull good
General Pike	24	1813		
Saratoga	24	—	Vergennes,	In good order
Cyanne	24	c. 1815	—	Repairable
Lawrence	20	1813	Erie,	Sunk
Detroit	18			
Erie	18	—	Baltimore,	In service
Hornet	18	1815	—	Wants repairing
Jefferson	18	—	Sacket's Harbour,	In good order
Jones	18			
Madison	18			
Oncida	18	—	—	Much decayed
Niagara	18	1813	Erie,	Receiving vessel
Ontario	18	1809	Baltimore,	In service
Peacock	18	1813	New York,	
Fulton 1st		1815	—	Steam frigate in ordinary
Boxer	16	c. 1815	Hartford,	In service
Linnet	16	1814	—	In good order
Saranac	16	1815	—	In service
Sylph	16	1813	Sacket's Harbour,	
Queen Charlotte	14	1813	—	Sunk
Ticonderaga	14	1814	—	
Alert storeship		c. 1814	—	In service

The Asp, Despatch, 2 guns; Enterprise, bomb; Firebrand schooner, 6; Hornet schooner, 6; Lynx, 5; Nonsuch, 6; and Porcupine, 1, are in service. The Lady of the Lake, 1, in good order; the Spitfire and Vesuvius bombs are condemned. The Vengeance unfit for service.

There were four 74's on the stocks, besides frigates and smaller vessels.

Those ships in *italics* are on the lakes, and are not considered as making a part of the navy.

THE MINT ESTABLISHMENT,—THE MONEY OF THE UNITED STATES,—AND THE NATIONAL BANK.

In 1792, the American congress passed an act for establishing a mint, and regulating the coins of the United States, in which it was declared, that, three years after the commencement of the American coinage, all foreign coins should cease to be a legal tender, except Spanish milled dollars, and parts thereof: and the infraction of this law was punished by a fine of ten dollars, and the forfeiture of the illegal money. The copper purchased and coined from the commencement of the institution to the 1st of January, 1809, amounted to 823,333 pounds, troy weight, and was valued at 266,854 dollars; the rate being seven pennyweights to a cent. The total value of gold, silver, and copper coins, was 8,346,146 dollars. The net amount chargeable to the coinage of gold, silver, and copper, including the cost of lots, building, machinery, &c. was 350,082 dollars.

A Table of the Coins of the United States.

Denominations.	Weight in Grains.	Value in Dollars.	Cents.
<i>Gold Coins.</i> —Eagle,	270	10	
Half eagle,	135	5	
Quarter eagle,	67½	2½	
<i>Silver Coins.</i> —Dollar,	416	1	100
Half dollar,	208	0½	50
Quarter,	104	0¼	25

	Dollars.	Cents.
Pound Sterling of Great Britain,	4	44
Livre tournois of France,	0	18½
Florin, or guilder, of the United Netherlands,	0	40
Pound Sterling of Ireland,	4	10

A national bank was chartered on the 10th April, 1816, the capital to consist of thirty millions of dollars. The affairs of this corporation have not prospered, and in 1818 a committee of congress examined their proceedings; and such regulations

have been adopted as may perhaps avert the evils which England is suffering from the exorbitant power and bad management of our national bank.

HISTORICAL SUMMARY.

We have before noticed the earliest and chief historical epochs of the United States, and have detailed the history of each distinct state. It therefore only remains to glance at the principal events which terminated in the independence of the Union, and which has indicated its progress towards a high rank in the scale of nations.

The northern colonies of New England had shown repeated symptoms of their original spirit of opposition to authority. The peace of 1763, after a war of immense expence, was crowned by the cession of Canada, and the consequent annihilation of the French power in North America. Canada was acquired at the price of about fifty times its real value; and the acquisition of Canada was the loss of America: so incapable is human prudence of presaging events, and so often does Providence effect objects by the very means which men employ to avert them! For the colonies were not only thus delivered from constant fear and jealousy of the French, which bound them to the protection of the parent country, but the vast expenditure of that splendid and absurd war occasioned such an increase of taxation, that the country gentlemen of England were easily induced to wish that a part of it might be borne by the colonies.

No sooner, therefore, was peace concluded, than the British parliament adopted the plan of taxing the colonies; and, to justify their attempts, declared that the money to be raised was to be appropriated to defray the expence of defending them in the late war. The first attempt to raise a revenue in America appeared in the memorable *stamp act*, passed March 22, 1765, whereby it was enacted, that certain instruments in writing, as bills, bonds, &c. should not be valid in law, unless drawn on stamped paper, on which a duty was laid.

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Immediately as this act was published in America, it raised a general alarm. The people were filled with apprehensions at an act which they supposed to be an attack on their constitutional rights. The colonies, therefore, petitioned the king and parliament for a redress of the grievance, and at the same time entered into associations for the purpose of preventing the importation and use of British manufactures until the obnoxious act should be repealed. This spirited and unanimous opposition of the Americans produced the desired effect; and on the 18th of March, 1766, the stamp act was repealed. The news of the repeal was received in the colonies with universal joy, and the trade between them and Great Britain was renewed on the most liberal footing.

The parliament, however, by repealing this act, so odious to their American brethren, by no means intended to lay aside the scheme of raising a revenue in the colonies, but merely to alter the mode. Accordingly, the next year they passed an act, imposing a certain duty on glass, tea, paper, and painters' colours; articles which were much wanted, and not manufactured in America. This act, as might reasonably have been expected after what had passed, kindled the resentment of the Americans, and excited a general opposition to the measure, so that parliament thought it advisable, in 1770, to take off these duties, except three-pence a pound on tea. Nevertheless, this duty, however trifling, kept alive the jealousy of the colonists, and their opposition to parliamentary taxation continued increasing from day to day.

It will be easily conceived that the inconvenience of paying the duty was not the sole nor even the principal cause of the opposition: it was the *principle*, which, once admitted, would have subjected the colonies to unlimited parliamentary taxation, without the privilege of being represented. The colonies, therefore, entered into measures for encouraging their own manufactures and home productions, and for retrenching the use of foreign superfluities, while the importation of tea was prohibited. In the royal and proprietary governments, and in Massachusetts, the governors and people were in a state of continual warfare. Assemblies were repeatedly called and

suddenly dissolved: employing the time while sitting in stating grievances and framing remonstrances. As if to inflame these discontents, an act of parliament was passed, ordaining, that the governors and judges should receive their salaries of the crown; thus rendering them independent of the provincial assemblies, and removeable only at the pleasure of the king.

In 1773, the spirit of the Americans broke out into open violence. The *Gaspee*, an armed schooner belonging to his Britannic majesty, had been stationed at Providence, in Rhode island, to prevent smuggling. The vigilance of the commander irritated the inhabitants to such a degree, that about 200 armed men boarded the vessel under favour of the night, compelled the officers and crew to go ashore, and set fire to the schooner. A reward of 500*l.*, offered by government for apprehending any of the persons concerned in this daring act, produced no effectual discovery.

Nor did the attempt to evade the resolution of the colonies, by introducing teas through the East India company, succeed. In Massachusetts, a party of men, dressed like Indians, boarded the tea ships, and discharged the cargoes into the water. This induced government to shut the port of Boston, and to pass several acts to repress this growing spirit of opposition.

All these steps, however, far from intimidating, rather exasperated the Americans, by confirming them in their former apprehensions of the evil designs of government, and served only to unite the colonies in a more determined opposition. A correspondence of opinion, in respect to these acts, produced an uniformity of proceedings in the colonies. The people generally concurred in the proposition for holding a congress, in order to concert measures for the preservation of their rights. Deputies were accordingly appointed, and met at Philadelphia on the 26th of October, 1774.

It was on the 19th of April, 1775, that the first blood was drawn in this unhappy civil war, at Lexington and Concord in New Eng^d. This was occasioned by general Gage sending a body of troops to destroy some military stores that were at Concord. They succeeded in their design, but were

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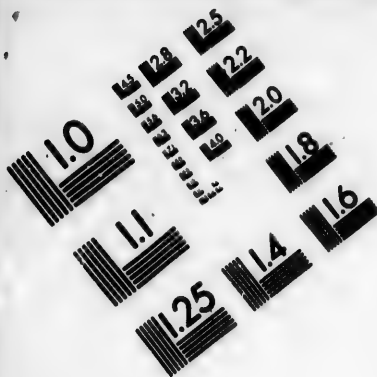
extremely harassed and forced to a quick retreat. Immediately after, numerous bodies of the American militia invested the town of Boston, in which general Gage and his troops were. In all the colonies they prepared for war with the utmost dispatch; and a stop was almost every where put to the exportation of provisions. The continental congress met at Philadelphia on the 10th of May, 1775, as proposed, and soon adopted such measures as confirmed the people in their resolutions to oppose the British government to the utmost.

In the mean time, a body of provincial adventurers, amounting to about 240 men, surprised the garrisons of Ticonderoga and Crown point. These fortresses were taken without the loss of a man on either side; and the provincials found in the forts a considerable number of pieces of cannon, besides mortars, and sundry kinds of military stores. However, the force of Great Britain in America was now augmented, by the arrival at Boston from England of generals Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, with considerable reinforcements.

On the 17th of June, 1775, a bloody action took place at Bunker's Hill, near Boston, in which the king's troops had the advantage, but with the loss of 226 killed, and more than 800 wounded, including many officers. But after this action, the Americans immediately threw up works upon another hill, opposite to it, on their side of Charlestown neck; so that the troops were as closely invested in that peninsula as they had been in Boston. About this time, the congress appointed George Washington, esq. a gentleman of large fortune in Virginia, of great military talents, and who had acquired considerable experience in the command of different bodies of provincials during the last war, to be general and commander-in-chief of all the American forces.

During these transactions, the royal army at Boston was reduced to great distress for want of provisions; the town was bombarded by the Americans, and general Howe, who now commanded the king's troops, which amounted to upwards of 7000 men, was obliged to quit Boston, and embark for Halifax, leaving a considerable quantity of artillery and some stores behind. The town was evacuated on the 17th of March,







1776, and general Washington immediately took possession of it. On the 4th of July following, the congress published a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the king of Great Britain. In the name, and by the authority of the inhabitants of the United Colonies, they declared that they then were, and of right ought to be, 'free and independent States;' that they were absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the kingdom of Great Britain was totally dissolved; and also that, as free and independent states, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent states may of right do. They likewise published articles of confederation and perpetual union between the united colonies, in which they assumed the title of 'The United States of America.'

An attack upon Charlestown was ably repelled by the Americans under general Lee; but the British, under general Howe and his brother vice-admiral lord Howe, compelled the Americans to evacuate Long island, from whence their retreat was conducted with great address by general Washington. New York was soon after abandoned, several forts were lost, the British troops covered the Jerseys, and the period for service in the American army had expired. This was the crisis of American danger. But their army being recruited by volunteers, Washington, in the night of the 25th of December, 1776, amidst snow, storms, and ice, crossed the Delaware, and surprised a brigade of Hessians at Trenton; and while the British were preparing to attack him at this post, he, by a happy stroke of generalship, retreated in the night, carried the British post of Princetown, and resumed his former position.

In September, 1777, after two actions between the armies of general Howe and general Washington, in both of which the former had the advantage, the city of Philadelphia surrendered to the king's troops. But an expedition, that had for some time been concerted, of invading the northern colonies by way of Canada, proved extremely unsuccessful. The

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command of this expedition had been given to lieutenant-general Burgoyne, a very experienced officer. He set out from Quebec with an army of near 16,000 men, and an extraordinary fine train of artillery, and was joined by a considerable body of the Indians. For some time he drove the Americans before him, and made himself master of Ticonderago; but at length he encountered such difficulties, and was so vigorously opposed by the Americans under Gates and Arnold, that after two severe actions, in which great numbers fell, general Burgoyne and his army of 5600 men were obliged to lay down their arms, October 17, 1777.

After several affairs, by which the animosity of the Americans to the British government was increased, the British army found it necessary to evacuate Philadelphia. General Howe returned to England, and was succeeded in the command of the army by general Clinton. By this time the British ministers began to be alarmed at the fatal tendency of the war; but the congress refused to treat with the commissioners which his majesty sent to settle all disputes, and the war continued with unabated animosity.

The emissaries of France had long been actively employed in forming and widening the breach between America and England; and, in 1778, that country openly espoused the American cause. Shortly after, Spain and Holland joined the confederacy, and co-operated with the Americans. In the mean time, lord Cornwallis gained some advantages in Carolina; but, by a well-concerted scheme, general Washington suddenly surrounded his army, which was obliged to capitulate; and this event may be considered as the closing scene of the continental American war.

The war against the colonies, which had never been popular in Britain, had now become so unsuccessful and expensive, that the government was compelled to listen to the public voice. Accordingly, the treaty of peace was signed on the 30th November, 1782; by which the independence of the United States was solemnly acknowledged, after a struggle of seven years; while that between Spain and the United Provinces continued, with some intermissions, for about 60 years:

but the profuse expence of modern warfare counterbalances its brevity.

The constitution of the United States having been found imperfect, a new plan was submitted to the several states, and received their approbation. On the 30th of April, 1789, George Washington was inaugurated president of the United States. The firmness with which that illustrious man opposed the insolence and impositions of the venal directory of France, added much to the glory of his name and the prosperity of his country.

When Bonaparte, flushed with victory, contemplated the ruin and ultimate subjugation of Britain, and to effect which declared it in a state of blockade, the British ministry, in retaliation, published certain orders, declaring the ports of France and her dependencies to be blockaded. In this state of things the trade of the United States suffered, by the hostile powers, several vexatious interruptions. Yet the American government shewed a marked partiality to France, and became extremely clamorous against Great Britain, accusing her naval officers of impressing their seamen, whom the latter claimed as British subjects. This dispute, in some instances, occasioned hostilities between the ships of the two powers. In order to avoid the insults which the American flag had suffered, congress passed a non-intercourse act, by which a stop was put to all trade with foreign powers; but this absurd and impolitic measure was, in a short time, abandoned.

After much discussion between the governments of England and the United States, the former revoked the obnoxious orders in council; but before the intelligence of this conciliatory measure reached America, Mr. Maddison, the president, had issued a declaration of war against England, dated the 18th of June, 1812; and circumstances appeared so favourable to success, that he persisted in his resolution to try the fortune of war.

The Americans commenced the war by fitting out a great number of privateers, and sending an army to invade Canada. But as the Canadians refused to listen to the revolutionary proclamation of the American general, Hull, he was obliged

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to surrender with his whole army. Various other attempts were made by the Americans upon Canada, in which the superior discipline and tactics of the English soldiery compensated for want of numbers, and ensured the defeat of the invaders, who were also much incommoded by the Indians, that had for some time been in a state of warfare with the United States. The spirit of the Americans was, however, supported by some successes which their ships obtained over the British, in which they certainly displayed the skill and gallantry of their progenitors.

The war lingered for some time, until the peace of Paris placed a strong body of veterans at the disposal of the English ministry. The British ships of war now blockaded the ports of the United States, kept the whole coast in continual alarm, sailed up the Chesapeake and Delaware, imposed contributions upon several towns, and even penetrated to Washington, the seat of government.

A similar attempt was made upon Baltimore, but failed. However, the Americans were unsuccessful upon the lakes, except on lake Champlain, where the whole British squadron was captured. But this war, so hurtful to both parties, was at last happily terminated by a treaty of peace signed by the English and American commissioners at Ghent. Before the signing of this treaty was known in America, a body of about 5000 English troops made an unsuccessful attack upon New Orleans, and suffered the loss of Sir Edward Pakenham, about 60 officers of rank, and 3600 men in killed, wounded, and prisoners.

According to a statement published by the war department, the aggregate number of militia, in 1816, amounted to 748,566. The following comparative view of the loss of the American and British armies, in the last war, is extracted from Nile's Weekly Register.

American :—Killed, 1422 ; wounded, 3044 ; killed and wounded, 4466 ; missing, 555 ; prisoners, 4687 ; total, 9888. British :—Killed, 2809 ; wounded, 5393 ; killed and wounded, 8202 ; missing, 251 ; prisoners, 2434 ; total, 11,387.

British National Vessels captured during the War.

British national vessels captured,	66
Carrying, in all, guns,	910

In those cases where the force of the contending parties is certainly known, it appears, in the aggregate, that

The British fought	615 guns.
Americans,	599

General balance in favour of the British,	16
But the difference between the Essex, 46, and the Alert, 26, being deducted, for the affair between them does not deserve the name of a battle,	20

And the real advantage on the side of the British was 26

American National Vessels captured or destroyed during the War.

American government vessels captured,	25
Carrying in all,	330 guns.

From those cases where the force of the contending parties is certainly known, these aggregates appear:

The British fought,	197 guns.
Americans,	142

In favour of the British, 55

Recapitulation.

American national vessels captured or destroyed by the British, 350 guns.

Essex, 44—54	destroyed at Washington city, to prevent them from falling into the enemy's hands,	76
Argus, 18—22		
Adams, 24—28, destroyed at Hampden as above,		28
Wasp, 18—22, lost,		22
Two vessels on lake Ontario, lost,		16

Grand total, 498

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ADVICE AND DIRECTIONS

EMIGRANTS.

WE will now proceed to give some plain and useful instructions to such of our countrymen as may hereafter emigrate to the United States of America, and which will fall under the following heads, viz.

1. Directions respecting the voyage.
2. Precautions for preserving the health in a new climate.
3. On the best mode of settling.
4. The prices of land, labour, and provisions.
5. The rights and duties of a permanent settler.
6. The prospects of various classes of emigrants.

These particulars comprise every thing necessary to be known by the adventurer, and will be detailed with strict impartiality and a minuteness commensurate with their importance.

1. DIRECTIONS RESPECTING THE VOYAGE.

It is always advisable, before embarking for a long voyage, to have all business transacted in good time, so as to spare a few days, which may be devoted to friendship and an attention to the little necessities that may be requisite on the voyage.

It is not always in a person's power to choose a captain, although a good deal of the comfort of the passage depends upon this choice. The chief requisites are, that he be a good

seaman; attentive, careful, and active in the management of his vessel: and of these circumstances, and indeed all others relative to the passage, you must satisfy yourself before setting out, for there is no use in making complaints at sea. It is still more difficult to make choice of sociable fellow-passengers. A ship is like a stage-coach, it must accommodate all comers; and one surly fellow may molest a whole ship's company. But a person, by having resources of his own, may make himself, in a great measure, independent of other people; and it will be well, before going on board, to take measures to accomplish that desirable object. For this purpose, a small library of books will be found very entertaining, and if you have any turn for the study of mathematics and drawing, you will have a good opportunity to practise on board; and a case of mathematical instruments, and a box of paints, will be necessary.

Choice of a Vessel.—A ship is preferable to a brig, as the sea motion in the former will be less felt, and the accommodations are generally superior. The English ships in the American trade are not equal to those in other trades; whilst, on the contrary, the best American vessels are in the British trade; so that it is well to select an American ship, the *safety* of which will be according to the quality of the timber and the building, and these can only be known by persons very conversant in those subjects. There are certain ships of established reputation, a few of which go to the port of London, and a greater number to Liverpool. From the port of Liverpool there are a very considerable number of first-rate ships for Philadelphia, Boston, and New York; among the latter is what are called the 'Packet Line.' One of these vessels sails *punctually* on the first of every month from Liverpool. The charge for passage is, in the cabin, 45 guineas, which includes wine, and indeed almost every luxury; in the steerage, 9s. exclusive of every thing but water. The house of Crapper, Benson, and Co. at Liverpool, are the agents for these ships; which are first-rate in every respect, and all their commanders are men of great experience. There are several others of a superior class: but it would be judicious in every person to

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make minute enquiries as to the character of the ship and captain with which they propose engaging; for it should be known that there are some very indifferent American ships, which go to both Liverpool and London, and particularly the latter port. A regular trader is generally to be preferred to a chance ship. The prices (with the exception of the packet ships) will vary according to circumstances; for the cabin from 30 to 45, and for the steerage from 7 to 10 guineas. It should be remarked that even this is a subject of barter. A few ships sail from Bristol and Greenock for New York—the *Fanny* from the latter port is rather celebrated. A passage from Havre, in France, to America, is often to be obtained much cheaper than from this country. Should a large party engage the same vessel, they would act prudently to procure an extra boat, for in case of accident or shipwreck, the two ship-boats would not be found sufficient; and upon such melancholy occurrences the crew commonly escape, and the passengers are lost.

Cabin passengers, though supplied by the captain, would find a small private stock desirable. A plum cake, soda-powders, a few good apples and oranges (the latter will keep if not previously bruised, and if each orange is carefully rolled in paper), preserves of several kinds, and cider, which will be found particularly pleasant at sea.

Steerage passengers should provide for 70, though they may not be out more than 50 days. They are compelled by law to take 80 lbs. of meat. A variety will be advisable; say 30 lbs. of beef, 20 of ham, 20 of tongue, 10 of bacon: herrings are pleasant, and salt cod particularly so, when eaten with egg-sauce: 50 lbs. of bread, of the best biscuit, and loaves cut in slices and toasted: rusks will be found very pleasant in tea: 30 to 40 lbs. of flour; a few pounds of oatmeal; ditto of rice; ditto of groats; ditto of arrow-root; 10 lbs. of cheese; 100 lbs. of potatoes. Have a small net bag to boil them in: this will prevent confusion with the cook, and also their being exchanged for others of, perhaps, an inferior quality. 5 lbs. of coffee, ground, and kept corked in a bottle, for the purpose of excluding the atmospheric air: 1 lb.

of tea; 14 lbs. of sugar: a small quantity of spirits, of wine, and bottled porter: the latter, mixed with an equal quantity of water, with sugar and nutmeg, will be found very agreeable. Have a definite understanding for the quantity of water per day. A filtering machine can be bought at 79, Titchfield-street, London, for 80s. Eggs to be kept in brine, and frequently turned: 10 lbs. of butter. Milk will keep, if boiled, and mixed with sugar, in the proportion of 2 lbs. to the quart. If the articles enumerated under the head *Cabin passengers* can be afforded, they would be found particularly pleasant. If there are females in the party, there should be some fowls. A few tin articles for the purposes of cooking, &c.

In choosing a berth, either in the cabin or steerage, the middle of the vessel, or as near to it as can be procured, is desirable, on account of the ship's motion being there less felt. Books will be an occasional, and but an occasional, relief to the monotony of a sea voyage. Those of a light and amusing character are the most suitable. Reading for more than half an hour at any one time produces the head-ache, and sensibly affects the eyes. *Medicines* are an important article of sea stores: they should be in pills, and taken frequently, with great exactness, at stated periods, and in as small quantities as can possibly produce the effect. Steerage passengers should have a specific agreement with the captain for the use of the place of convenience: this is an important consideration, and great inconvenience is sometimes experienced by such persons in being denied this. A flute, a violin, and a pack of cards, are pleasant companions.

A short time after setting sail, the passengers generally get sea-sick. This complaint, though lightly esteemed, because not dangerous, is often very severe while it lasts; and, if treated improperly, it may cause a relaxation of the stomach, that will be very troublesome. While the sickness continues, people have an aversion to all kinds of food and drink. Many abstain from both three or four days. This is a bad plan. The stomach should never be allowed to get entirely empty. A little chicken broth or water gruel should be freely used; and people should go upon deck as soon as possible. Breath-

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ing the foul air of the cabin or steerage promotes the disease; whereas exercise and free air on deck relieve it. A little soda water will at this time be very exhilarating; and as soon as the stomach is so far cleansed as to keep free from retching, a little Peruvian bark will be very beneficial as a restorative. Care should be taken to guard against costiveness, a very troublesome complaint at sea. Attention to diet and exercise will often prevent it; but where that fails, a little laxative medicine, such as rhubarb, cream of tartar, or castor oil, should be resorted to.

But as sea-sickness is viewed with considerable alarm by people unaccustomed to the sea, particularly females, we will enter into this subject more at large.

This disorder, so far from being injurious to asthmatic and consumptive people, has, in general, a beneficial effect; and the instances in which it has proved fatal are extremely rare. It appears to be a spasmodic affection of the stomach, occasioned by the alternate pressure and recess of its contents against its lower internal surface, according as the rise and fall of the ship oppose the action of gravity.

The motion of the Atlantic ocean between Great Britain and America produces sea-sickness with the greatest violence, as the waves have an uninterrupted freedom of action, which causes that regular vacillation that renders the head giddy. A person feels less inconvenience from the disorder in a small vessel on the wide ocean, on which the slightest motion of the waves makes a strong impression. He is also less exposed to it in a large vessel deeply laden, as the waves, in this case, scarcely affect the vessel. It is in ships of an ordinary size, and which carry but a light cargo, that the passenger suffers most from the sea-sickness. The sooner it takes place after embarkation, the continuance of it becomes the more probable. It does not always cease immediately on landing, but in some cases continues for a considerable time.

Many methods of preventing, or at least of mitigating this disorder, have been recommended, of which the most efficacious appear to be the following:

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1. Not to go on board immediately after eating, and not to eat, when on board, any large quantity at a time.

2. To take much exercise, with as little intermission as possible; as indolent passengers are always the greatest sufferers from the disorder.

3. To keep much upon deck, even when the weather is stormy; as the sea breeze is not so apt to affect the stomach as the impure air of the cabin, rendered so for want of proper circulation.

4. Not to watch the motion of the waves, particularly when strongly agitated with tempest.

5. To fix the eye steadily on the mast, cabin, or some other object on deck. This is an excellent method for preventing this disorder.

6. Carefully to shun all employments by which the mind may be harassed, as reading, studying, gaming, &c., and to seek all opportunities of mental relaxation.

7. To drink occasionally liquids containing carbonic acid, as the froth of beer strongly fermented, or wine and Seltzer water mixed together, and sweetened with pounded sugar.

8. It will also be beneficial to take sulphuric acid dulcified, dropped on a bit of sugar, or in peppermint water, or ten drops of ether.

The proper diet consists of bread and fresh meat, to be eaten cold with pepper. All sweet savoured food should be carefully avoided, and the passenger ought to refrain from fat, and particularly from such meat as is in the smallest degree tainted. Even the smell of flowers is injurious, for which reasons marine productions ought not to be examined; but the fumes of vinegar may be advantageously inhaled. The drink should consist of lemonade or tart wines, but never of common water. An accidental diarrhoea has often relieved the patient from sea-sickness, and therefore a gentle laxative in such a disorder seems to be indicated as proper. It will also be found useful to apply a tonic anodyne plaster to the pit of the stomach, spread upon leather, and covered with linen.

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When symptoms of vomiting appear, they may often be remedied by the patient placing himself in a horizontal position on his back or belly, and lying perfectly still. If the fits of vomiting are too violent to be repressed, they should be promoted by a strong dose of salt water; not, however, to be often repeated, as it debilitates the stomach. When the emetic operates, the patient should bend his body, bringing his knees towards his breast, and supporting his head against a firm resting-place. His garters and cravat must be untied, a precaution which will secure him from the danger of a rupture.

The vomiting having subsided, a state of repose will prevent its return, and the eyes may be kept shut for a considerable time. The patient must make choice of a cool ventilating place, remembering to keep himself warm and well clothed, as perspiration is highly beneficial. A gargle of sugar dissolved in vinegar is to be taken in the morning, accompanied with frequent and spare eating. Water must never be taken in its pure state, but mixed with wine, vinegar, or brandy. A glass of wine may be taken in the morning, with an infusion of orange peel, gentian root, or Peruvian bark. A glass of punch, occasionally taken, will be extremely beneficial, by which perspiration is promoted. Dr. Trotter recommends a glass of brandy, as the best cure for a slight attack of this disagreeable disorder.

Persons accustomed to smoke tobacco, will find the use of the pipe salutary on such occasions, but the practice of smoking will be injurious to all others. We may add that warm clothing, flannel shirts, caps, trousers, &c. are powerful remedies against excessive expectoration, with every other symptom of this dreadful malady.

When the weather is good, people should rise early. The air of the cabin is not only affected by the respiration of the passengers, but it is often contaminated by the bilge water; while the sea air on deck is always pure and healthy. The breakfast hour at sea is eight o'clock, dinner one, and supper six or seven. It is a general rule amongst the passengers, to have themselves washed and dressed before sitting down to breakfast. Betwixt breakfast and dinner, the time may be

profitably employed in walking, reading, drawing, &c.; and such as have a taste for navigation will have a good opportunity for practical improvement, as they can have access to the log-book; and the captain and mates are generally very obliging, in lending their navigation books and instruments to those who wish them.

Temperance at table is necessary every where, and especially at sea, where the exercise is necessarily limited. Where wine is used, three or four glasses will generally be found more beneficial than a larger quantity; and people ought, on no account, to indulge themselves at the table a whole afternoon, though it is frequently done. It is much better to take exercise in the open air on deck.

Packing up.—A SELECTION should be made in a box by themselves of clothes intended to be worn at sea. Those of the most inferior kind will do as well as the best. A warm great coat will be found useful. The provision casks should be written on, 'Stores.' Baggage must be entered at the custom-house; and in procuring a *cocket*, care should be taken that the whole of the packages are enumerated: if this is neglected, an additional expence will be incurred.

Articles desirable to be taken out.—Clothing of every kind, except silks and silk pocket handkerchiefs. Females would do well to take no article of dress *particular* in appearance. Men's trousers should be of the *Wellington* kind only. The American fashions differ in some things from ours; and any deviation from them is much remarked upon. Most convenient and unbreakable articles of domestic utensils. No cabinet furniture. A good stock of table-linen and bedding: whether feather-beds are desirable or not is questionable. Carpeting, if it can be cut to suit other sized rooms; stationery of every kind; agricultural implements; musical and philosophical instruments.

Fees of Officers.—To the collectors and naval officers, Every port entry, 2 dollars. Permit to land goods, 20 cents. Every bond taken officially, 40 cents. Bill of health, 20 cents. (There is commonly a demand of two dollars made for this by the captain: this is, of course, an imposition.)

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Passengers' Baggage, &c.—Entry is to be made by passengers of all clothes, tools or implements of trade or profession, arriving in the United States to settle, which articles are exempted from duty. The form of such entry, and oath respecting the same, as follows:

'Entry of baggage, wearing apparel, &c. imported by
in the _____ master, from _____ New York,
(Here the particulars to be inserted.)

'District of _____
'Port of _____

'I, _____ do solemnly, sincerely, and truly swear, (or affirm,) that the entry subscribed by me and hereto annexed, contains, to the best of my knowledge and belief, a just and true account of the contents of the several _____ mentioned in the said entry, imported in the _____ from _____ and that they contain no goods, wares, or merchandise whatever, other than the wearing apparel and other personal baggage (or if the case require) and the tools of the trade of _____ all which are the property of _____ who has, or have arrived, who is, or are shortly expected to arrive in the United States, and are not directly or indirectly imported for any other person or persons, or intended for sale.

'So help me God.'

If the articles shall be entered by any other person than the owner, bond to be given in a sum equal to the amount of what the duties would be, if imported subject to duty; that the owner shall within one year verify such entry on oath, or the collector may direct such baggage to be examined; and if any article is contained therein, which ought to pay duty, entry must be made thereof; and if an entry is made as aforesaid, and upon examination thereof, any article is found therein subject to duty, (not having been expressed at the time of making the entry,) it is forfeited, and the person in whose baggage the same shall be found, forfeits and shall pay treble the value thereof.

Before we close this division of the subject of emigration, it may also be proper to observe, that before an emigrant can

pass any custom-house in Great Britain, it is necessary for him to be furnished with a certificate, to the following purport :

'We, the undersigned churchwardens and overseers of the parish of in the county of do hereby certify and declare unto the officers of his majesty's customs, and all others whom it may concern, that we have known A B of the parish of aforesaid, for several years last past ; and that the trade or business of the said A B, during all the time that we have known him, hath been that of a . And we do further particularly certify and declare, that the said A B is not, nor hath ever been, a manufacturer or artificer in wool, iron, steel, brass, or any other metal, nor is he, or hath he ever been, a watch-maker, or clock-maker, or any other manufacturer or artificer whatsoever. And we do further certify, that the said A B is about years of age, stands feet and inches, or thereabouts, in height, hath hair, eyes, complexion, is of a appearance.

'As witness our hands, this day of

[To be signed by two churchwardens and two overseers.]

'I, C D, esq. one of his majesty's justices of the peace for the county of do hereby certify and declare, that the several persons whose names are subscribed at the foot of the above-written certificate, are respectively the churchwardens and overseers of the parish of aforesaid ; and that the statement contained in the same certificate is true, according to the best of my knowledge, information, and belief.

'As witness my hand this day of

II. PRECAUTIONS FOR PRESERVING THE HEALTH IN A NEW CLIMATE.

The change of climate is almost sure to affect the health ; but the temperate will scarcely feel any effect, either from the extreme heat of summer, or the severe frosts in winter. Richmond in Virginia, Charlestown in Carolina, and the distant city of New Orleans, are places where an enterprising adventurer, who chuses to risk his health and his morals, may easily accumulate a fortune. The northern and middle states are more healthy, and better adapted to the health of an Englishman. Perhaps there is no place in the Union where the tem-

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perature is so similar to that of old England as Long Island. On this subject we subjoin the advice given by the Shamrock Society of New York, which seems to comprise almost all the precautions necessary to be observed.

‘Emigrants from Europe usually arrive here during summer; and, every thing considered, it is best that they should; for, in the middle and eastern states, the winter is long, fuel very dear, and employment comparatively scarce at that season. In winter they will expend more, and earn less. But if arriving at this time bear more upon their pocket, the heats of the summer are undoubtedly more trying to their health. In the middle states, namely, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, a northern European usually finds the climate intensely hot, from about the middle of June till towards the 1st of October. The thermometer frequently ranges from 84 to 90, and sometimes to 96 in the middle of the day; this, to a stranger who works in the open air, exposed to the burning sun, is certainly dangerous, and requires some precautions on his part.

‘First of all, he should regulate his diet, and be temperate in the quantity of his food. The American labourer, or working mechanic, who has a better and more plentiful table than any other man in the world of his class, is, for the most part, a small eater; and we recommend to you his example. The European of the same condition, who receives meat, or fish and coffee, at breakfast, meat at dinner, and meat or fish, and tea, at supper—an abundance of animal food to which he was unaccustomed—insensibly falls into a state of too great repletion, which exposes him to the worst kind of fever during the heats of summer and autumn. He should, therefore, be quite as abstemious in the quantity of food as of strong drink; and, in addition to this method of preventing sickness, he should take a dose of active physie, every now and then, especially in the hotter months of July and August. By this prudent course an ardent climate will have no terrors; and, after some residence here, he may preserve his health by regimen and exercise alone.

'The labourer or mechanic should put off his ordinary clothes, and wear next his skin a loose flannel shirt, while he works: it should be taken off again when he is done.

'The stranger, as well as native, must be particularly careful not to drink cold water after being heated by exposure to the sun or exercise. Sudden and severe pain at the stomach, and even death, are frequently the consequence of such imprudence. The Humane Society of this city has published the following directions to be observed in such cases:

'1st. To avoid drinking water while the body is heated, or daring profuse perspiration.

'2d. Wash the hands and face with cold water before drinking.

'3d. If these precautions have been neglected, and cramps or convulsions have been induced, let a tea-spoonful of laudanum be given immediately in a cup of spirits and water, and repeat the dose in half an hour, if necessary.

'4th. At the same time apply hot fomentations of spirits and water to the stomach and bowels, and to the lower extremities, covering the body with a blanket; or immerse the body in a warm bath, if it can be immediately obtained.

'5th. Inject into the bowels a pint of warm spirits and water, mixed in the proportion of one part of the former to two of the latter.'

III. ON THE BEST MODE OF SETTLING.

Mechanics, intending to continue as such, would do well to remain in New York, Baltimore, or Philadelphia, until they become familiarised with the country. Persons designing to settle in the western states will save some expences by landing in Philadelphia. Those to whom a few pounds is not an object, will shorten their voyage two or three days by arriving at New York. The summer route from thence to Philadelphia is particularly pleasant, with the exception of 25 miles land-carriage, and sleeping one night on the road: the whole can be completed for about ten dollars. In winter, there are

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excellent stages (by far the best in America) from New York to Philadelphia: the fare is from eight to ten dollars, and the journey is completed in fourteen hours,—distance, 96 miles.

The route to the western country, by way of New Orleans, is attended with many disadvantages: it is much longer, and more dangerous, in consequence of a great deal of coasting, and the difficulties of the gulf of Florida. The voyage from the Balaize, at the junction of the Mississippi with the gulf of Mexico, to New Orleans, though but 100 miles, is always tedious, and sometimes vessels are three weeks in getting up that distance. The yellow fever is of annual occurrence at New Orleans. The steam-boats, though numerous, *cannot* proceed at stated periods, and a residence at New Orleans may be long, and *must be expensive*; and to take passage in a keel-boat up the stream, would be an almost endless undertaking.

The best mode is to proceed from Philadelphia by way of Pittsburg. Horseback is very preferable to the stage, particularly on the Alleghany mountains. A poor family would have their baggage conveyed in the cheapest way by the regular stage-waggons,—themselves walking; and this they will find in crossing the mountains to be better than riding (except on horseback). They should take with them as good a stock of *eatables* as they can with convenience, the charges on the road being very extravagant. Those who have their own waggons should have them made as strong as possible, and their horses should be in good condition. Small articles of cutlery, and all the machinery necessary for repairs on the road, are of first necessity. When arrived at Pittsburg, the cheapest and easiest mode of travelling is to float down the river; for which purpose there are boats of almost every variety, (steam-boats excepted,) from 2s. 8d. upwards, per hundred miles. Warm clothing should be taken, as there is sure to be some *severe* weather in every part of America. The articles required in floating down the river will be nearly as follows:—The 'Pittsburg Navigator,' a small volume, and which may be had at Cramer and Spears; nails, hammer, hatchet, tinder-box, box for fire, gridiron, iron pot, coffee-pot,

coffee-mill, tea-pot, plates, spoons, knives and forks, rings, candles, coffee, tea, sugar, spirits, meat, potatoes, bread, pens and ink, paper, medicine, and a gun. If there is what is called 'a good stage of water,' that is, if the waters of the Ohio are high, which they always are in the spring and autumn, boats will be taken by the stream, without rowing, from three to four miles per hour. Except in cases of dense fog, they can be allowed to float at night in the Ohio. In the Mississippi this would not be safe, the navigation of the latter river being both difficult and dangerous. Unless the waters of the Ohio are very high at its falls near Louisville, a pilot should be engaged to navigate the boat over them.

Mr. Mellish says that families moving to the western country usually travel by waggons of their own, in which case they provide food for themselves and their horses, and are accommodated with lodgings at the different houses where they stop all night. The charge for this accommodation is generally very moderate, and when the moving family is poor, the payment is often dispensed with.

There are so many different points from whence emigrants set out, and to which they go, that it is difficult to form an estimate that will apply to them all. Probably the following view may be the most intelligible.

A waggon with two horses can accommodate seven persons, and can travel with tolerable ease 20 miles a day, the Sundays being devoted to rest; and, by travelling economically, the whole expence will not exceed two dollars per day, or fourteen dollars per week, in which the family can travel 120 miles. At this rate, a family of seven can travel from Connecticut to Cleveland, 600 miles, for 70 dollars; or from Philadelphia to Zanesville, in the interior of the state of Ohio, 425 miles, for about 60 dollars. On the latter route, a great many waggons travel between Philadelphia and Pittsburg, waggon-hire being about five dollars per cwt. for both persons and property. The carriage of a family of seven, by this conveyance, would cost about 45 dollars, besides their board; which appears more in proportion than by the other mode; but it is to be observed, that in this way it is unnecessary to purchase horses

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or waggons, which, in the eastern states, are pretty dear, and there is no wear and tear. A considerable saving can frequently be made on both routes by water conveyance: on the north by lake Erie, and on the south by the Ohio river. The stage between Philadelphia and Pittsburg is the most agreeable and expeditious mode of travelling on that road, and is preferred by such as can afford the expence.

Many emigrants, particularly those who sail from Leith, Shields, Sunderland, Hull, and other ports on the east of the kingdom, find it prudent, either on account of the cheapness of conveyance, or the strictness of the custom-house officers, to sail direct to Quebec or Montreal. Those who may chuse this route to New York will find the distances and expence as follows:

	Dollars.	Hours.	Miles.
From Quebec to Montreal, by steam-boat,	10	24	188
Montreal to St. John,	3	4	37
St. John to Whithall, steam-boat,	9	26	150
Whithall to Albany, by stages, fare 5 dollars, expence 3,	8	18	70
Albany to New York, steam-boat,	7	28	160
From Quebec to New York,	37	90	603

Or 8*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.* expence, performed in 3 days 18 hours; or from Montreal, 6*l.* 1*s.* 6*d.* expence, performed in 2 days 18 hours, distance 517 miles.

Clements Burleigh, esq., who resided upwards of 80 years in the United States, has given the following judicious directions to poor emigrants on landing in America.

‘I will take the liberty, as an introduction, to point out some stumbling blocks that have been in the way of many emigrants to this country. We conceive the vessel coming to anchor, and the passengers preparing for going ashore. On setting their feet on land, they look about them, see fine houses, gardens, and orchards, the streets crowded with well-dressed people, every one pursuing his own business. Well, the question now is, where shall I go? I meet a person pass-

ing, and address myself to him, requesting him to inform me where I can have accommodations for some short time. He will point out a house which he thinks may answer my appearance, &c. I get my goods conveyed to this house. The landlord and his family receive me as a foreigner, and so long as I have cash will have a watchful eye over me, and treat me according to what money I spend with them. In the mean time, on the arrival of an Irish ship, a crowd of poor Irish, who have been in that country for a number of years, are always fond of meeting their countrymen on landing, and of encouraging them to take a share of grog or porter, &c. The feelings of the open-hearted Irishman are alive to the invitation, and some days are spent in this way, in the company of men who are a disgrace to the country they came from, and who are utterly incapable to procure themselves work, much less the poor emigrant. I warn emigrants, therefore, to be upon their guard.

The plan, therefore, which I would recommend, is that upon landing, as soon as convenient, they should divest themselves of any heavy luggage, such as chests or boxes; and in the mean time, if they are deficient of money to carry them to the inland parts of the country, stop some time, and if they can get work apply to it, and use what they earn with economy, and keep clear of all idle company, and also be particular in keeping clear of a certain description of their own countrymen. When they have acquired as much money as may help to bear their expences, let them put their bundles on board one of the waggons, loaded with merchandise for the western country. By being active and obliging to the carrier on the way, he will charge little or nothing on your arrival at Pittsburg, or Greensburg, or any other town in the western parts of Pennsylvania. You then take your property from the waggon, if it suits, and make inquiry for labour.

Emigrants from Switzerland and Germany are numerous, and from patience and industry generally succeed. People of certain districts sometimes form themselves into a society a year or two before they leave, and contribute to a general fund, which enables them to send a few of the most intelligent

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of their number before them in order to select and prepare a settlement. Others are so poor as to be obliged to sell or indenture themselves to a captain, who carries them out on speculation. Such is also frequently the case with poor adventurers from Ireland; and sometimes Scotch Highlandmen are carried out on the same plan. The hardships suffered by the poor creatures who are conveyed in this way to America have been feelingly described by an English traveller, to whom we have frequently referred.

'A practice,' says he, 'which has been often referred to in connection with this country, naturally excited my attention. It is that of individuals emigrating from Europe without money, and paying for their passage by binding themselves to the captain, who receives the produce of their labour for a certain number of years.

'Seeing the following advertisement in the newspapers, put in by the captain and owners of the vessel referred to, I visited the ship, in company with a boot-maker of this city (Philadelphia):

"THE PASSENGERS

"On board the brig *Bubona*, from Amsterdam, and who are willing to engage themselves for a limited time, to defray the expenses of their passage, consist of persons of the following occupations, besides women and children, viz. 13 farmers, 2 bakers, 2 butchers, 8 weavers, 3 tailors, 1 gardener, 3 masons, 1 mill-sawyer, 1 whitesmith, 2 shoe-makers, 3 cabinet-makers, 1 coal-burner, 1 barber, 1 carpenter, 1 stocking-weaver, 1 cooper, 1 wheelwright, 1 brewer, 1 locksmith.—Apply on board of the *Bubona*, opposite Callowhill-street, in the river Delaware, or to W. Odlin and Co. No. 38, South Wharves.

"Oct. 2."

'As we ascended the side of this hulk, a most revolting scene of want and misery presented itself. The eye involuntarily turned for some relief from the horrible picture of human suffering, which this living sepulchre afforded. Mr. — enquired if there were any shoe-makers on board. The captain advanced: his appearance bespoke his office; he is an American, tall, determined, and with an eye that flashes with

Algerine cruelty. He called in the Dutch language for shoemakers, and never can I forget the scene which followed. The poor fellows came running up with unspeakable delight, no doubt anticipating a relief from their loathsome dungeon. Their clothes, if rags deserve that denomination, actually perfumed the air. Some were without shirts, others had this article of dress, but of a quality as coarse as the worst packing cloth. I enquired of several if they could speak English. They smiled, and gabbled, "No Engly, no Engly—one Engly talk ship." The deck was filthy. The cooking, washing, and necessary departments were close together. Such is the mercenary barbarity of the Americans who are engaged in this trade, that they crammed into one of those vessels 500 passengers, 86 of whom died on the passage. The price for women is about 70 dollars, men 80 dollars, boys 60 dollars. When they saw at our departure that we had not purchased, their countenances fell to that standard of stupid gloom which seemed to place them a link below rational beings. From my heart I execrated the *European cause* of their removal, which is thus daily compelling men to quit the land of their fathers, to become voluntary exiles in a foreign clime:—yet Americans can think and write such sentiments as the following: "We rejoice with the patriotic Hollanders at the return of the illustrious house of Orange to their first magistracy, and do not wonder at *their enthusiastic joy* upon the occasion, when they remember that this ancient family have been always the gallant and zealous defenders of *the rights and liberties of the Dutch people*."

'An interesting occurrence is said to have taken place the other day, in connection with the German Redemptioners (as by a strange misnomer the Dutch are denominated). A gentleman of this city wanted an old couple to take care of his house;—a man, his wife, and daughter were offered to him for sale;—he purchased them.—They proved to be his father, his mother, and sister!!!'

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IV. THE PRICES OF LAND, LABOUR, AND PROVISIONS.

On this important subject it is necessary to state particulars, and to leave the conclusion to the reader's judgment. But as there is such a considerable difference in the value of money, and the price of labour and provisions, in different states, we will consider each place separately.

New York.

Prices.—The comparative expenditure for domestic wants may be estimated from the following list of prices:—Beef is from 3½d. to 6d. per pound; mutton, 3½d. to 5½d.; veal, 5d. to 6½d.; ham and bacon, 7½d. to 10½d.; dried beef, 8½d.; fowls, 1s. 9½d. to 2s. 9d. a pair; ducks, 2s. 8d. to 2s. 9d. a pair; geese, 2s. 8d. to 3s. 11d. each; turkeys, 3s. 4½d. to 5s. 7½d. each; pork, 6½d. to 8d. a pound; butter (fresh) 15d. to 20½d.; eggs, nine for 6½d.; cheese, old, 9½d., new, 6½d., English, 10d. to 16d.: there is but little of this article used; that which is of American manufacture is extremely bad: potatoes, 8s. 4½d. per bushel; cabbages, 3½d. each; turnips, 2s. 2½d. per bushel; peas, 6½d. to 10d. per peck; salt, 3s. 8d. per bushel; milk, 5½d. per quart; common fish, 2d. to 3½d. per pound; salmon, 1s. 1½d. to 3s. 4d. per pound; brown soap, 6½d.; white ditto dressed, 8½d. per pound; candles, 8½d. per pound; mould ditto, 1s.; flour per barrel (weighing 196 pounds) is, of the best New York, 46s. 6d. to 49s. 10½d.; middling ditto, 36s. to 40s. 6d.; rye, 31s. 6d.; Philadelphia flour, 46s. 1½d. to 47s. 8d.; Indian ditto, 38s. 9d. to 41s. 6d.; hogshead of ditto, weighing 800 pounds, 148s. 6d. to 153s.; wheat, 7s. 10½d. to 9s. per bushel; rye, 6s. 4d. ditto; barley, 6s. 4d. ditto; oats, 1s. 10d.; hops, 19s. to 21s. 0½d. per pound; foreign feathers, 13½d. to 14d. a pound; American ditto, 8s. 1½d.; a loaf of bread weighing 17 oz., 3½d.; a ditto, 34 oz., 7d.; mustard, 8s. to 4s. a pound; table beer, 5s. 7½d. for 5 gallons; common ale, 5½d. per quart; best ditto, 7d., wine measure; a cask of 9 gallons of ditto, 24s. 9d.; apples, 10d. per peck; lobsters, 2½d. per pound;

onions, (an article much used,) 3½d. a rope; cucumbers, 5 for 1s. 1½d.; common brown sugar, 7d. a pound; East India ditto, 10½d.; lump ditto, 18½d.; best ditto, 16d.; raw coffee by the bag, 10½d. a pound; souchong tea, 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7d. a pound; hyson, 5s. 7d. to 6s. 2d.; gunpowder, 10s. 1½d. The quality of provisions is, in general, very good: the beef is excellent, mutton rather inferior to ours: fowls are much larger but not better eating than the English. Candles are inferior to English; soap perhaps superior, at least less is required than of ours for any given purpose.

Trades, Wages, &c.—Building in New York is generally performed by contract. A person intending to have a house erected contracts with a professed builder; the builder, with a bricklayer; and he, with all others necessary to the completion of the design. In some cases, a builder is a sort of head workman, for the purpose of overseeing the others; receiving for his agency seven-pence per day from the wages of each man; the men being employed and paid by him. There are occasional instances in which there is no contract, every thing being paid for according to measure and value. In the city, houses of wood are not now allowed, but in the environs they are very general; and many of them handsome in appearance. They are commonly of two stories, and painted white, with green shutters. The expence of a frame (wood) house is materially affected by situation: on an average, they will cost to erect about the same as a brick house in England. The builder is sometimes his own timber-merchant. Indeed, all men here know a portion, and enter a little into every thing:—the necessary consequence of a comparatively new state of society.

The timber, or (as the term is here) lumber yards are not on that large and compact scale with which, in England, we are familiar. Mahogany yards are generally separate concerns. Oak boards are 5½. 12s. 6d. per thousand feet. Shingles, (an article used instead of tiles or slates,) 1½. 2s. 6d. per thousand feet, to which is to be added a duty of 15 per cent. Honduras mahogany is 5½d. to 7½d. the superficial foot; and St. Domingo, 9½d. to 17½d. Mahogany is used for cupboards,

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doors, and banisters, and for all kinds of cabinet work. Curl maple, a native and most beautiful wood, is also much approved. Veneer is in general demand, and is cut by machinery. Chests of drawers are chiefly made of St. Domingo mahogany, the inside being faced with box-wood: shaded veneer and curl maple are also used for this purpose. The cabinet work executed in this city is light and elegant, superior indeed to English workmanship. Some have cut glass, instead of brass ornaments, which have a beautiful effect. The retail price of a three feet six inch chest of drawers, well finished and of good quality, is 3*l*. 16*s*. 6*d*.; of a three feet ten, with brass rollers, 5*l*. 8*s*. A table, three feet long, four and a half wide, 3*l*. 7*s*. 6*d*.; ditto with turned legs, 4*l*. 5*s*. 6*d*.; three and a half long, five and a half wide, (plain,) 3*l*. 12*s*.; ditto better finished, 4*l*. 10*s*.; ladies' work tables, (very plain,) 18*s*. Cabinet-makers' shops, of which there are several in Greenwich-street, contain a variety, but not a large stock. They are generally small concerns, apparently owned by journeymen, commenced on their own account. These shops are perfectly open, and there is seldom any person in attendance. In the centre, a board is suspended with the notice, "Ring the bell." Several proprietors now state their business to have been once good, but that there is at present too much competition.

Chair-making here, and at the town of Newark, ten miles distant, is an extensive business. The retail price of wooden chairs is from 4*s*. 6*d*. to 9*s*.; of curl maple with rush seat, 11*s*.; of ditto with cane seat, 13*s*. 6*d*. to 1*l*. 2*s*. 6*d*.; of ditto, most handsomely finished, 1*l*. 9*s*.; sofas, of the several descriptions enumerated above, are the price of six chairs. Cabinet-makers, timber-merchants, and builders complain—they all say that their trades have been good, but that there is now a great increase in the numbers engaged, and that the times are so altered with the merchants that all classes feel the change very sensibly.

Glass mirrors and picture frames are executed with taste and elegance; but still the most superior are imported from England. Carved ornaments are general, though some com-

position ornaments are used. Plate glass is imported from France, Holland, and England, the latter bearing the highest price. Silvering looking-glasses is a separate trade: there is but one silverer in New York, and he is not constantly employed. Carvers and gilders are paid 84d. per hour. The sale of prints and pictures is usually combined with this business. There are here two gold-beaters: one of them is a Mr. Jones from London. Leaf-gold is frequently imported; but they consider their own equal to foreign, and it bears the same price, 40s. 6d. the packet, containing 20 books. The duty on imported leaf-gold is 15 per cent. A capital of from 800*l.* to 2000*l.* would be requisite for a moderately respectable concern. A journeyman gilder would not succeed; a carver may do so; but neither trades are (to use an Americanism) of the first grade.

Boot and shoe-makers' shops are numerous, some of them extensive. The price, of sole-leather is 11d. to 13½d.; of dressed upper ditto, 11s. 3d. to 15s. 9d.; to this is to be added a duty of 20 per cent. Wellington boots at the best shops are charged 2*l.* 0s. 6d.; shoes, 13s. 6d. Spanish is much worn for upper leather. They are made neat and with taste: the workmanship appears quite equal to the best London. The American leather is very inferior in quality. Native workmen appear as good as English. A capital of from 500 to 1000 dollars is requisite in a moderate concern. A master shoe-maker will not be benefited by coming here; a journeyman may be so.

A dyer's business in this city will best accord with an English scowerer. The price for dyeing black woollen is 3s. per yard, ½ wide; of brown ditto, 3s.; red, 2s. 6d.; yellow, 2s. 6d.; scarlet, 20s. a pound. There is no silk dyed in the skein, nor are there any silk-weavers in the United States. Fast blue is not done. Re-dyeing old silk is 6½d. per yard. English alum is from 33s. 9d. to 36s. per cwt., to which is to be added a duty of 4s. 6d.; braziletto, 140s. to 160s. per ton; cochineal, 24s. 9d. per pound, with a duty of 7½ per cent.; logwood, 90s. to 112s. 6d. per ton. The business is of necessity limited. It is moderately good, and would not re-

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quite a capital of more than from 200*l.* to 500*l.* A few journeymen are employed. They earn 2*l.* 5*s.* per week.

The trade of tallow-chandler is united by some with that of soap-boller. Any other business may be connected with it, as the law raises no difficulty on the subject. The operation of melting must be removed a specified distance from the closely inhabited part of the city. The pickle-trade is of no account, as families prepare their own.

The oil and colour business might be combined with that of tallow-chandler, though perhaps without increased advantage. Oil is sold at grocery-stores, and by painters. The rent of a house to suit an oil business, in a fourth-rate situation, (a better being unnecessary,) would be 185*l.* to 150*l.* per annum. A capital of from 800*l.* to 1200*l.* would suffice. For a journeyman or shopman it is a bad trade. They are paid 4*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* 7½*d.* per diem. The chief work is done by apprentices. The Irish have got the greater part of this business; and they will, if possible, prevent an English journeyman from having employment. The wholesale prices of tallow are, foreign, 6½*d.* to 7½*d.*, with a duty of ½*d.*; American, 7½*d.*; of soap, Castile, 8½*d.* to 9*d.*; turpentine, 5½*d.*, with a duty of 1½*d.* In the eastern states there is a superabundance of native tallow, but in the south it is scarce. Barilla is not used, American ashes being substituted; which are from 8½*d.* to 10½*d.* per bushel. A tallow-chandler in London who can save 50*l.* per annum, would not be benefited in his finances by a removal to this country.

Tailors are numerous: they are denominated (in conformity with the accustomed vanity of the country) 'Merchant Tailors.' Some keep rather large stocks of woollen piece-goods, all of which are of British manufacture. The price of a superfine coat is from 6*l.* 6*s.* to 8*l.* 2*s.* They are paid for making a common coat 18*s.*; a best ditto, 27*s.* If a journeyman find the trimmings, he receives for a best coat 45*s.* to 51*s.* For making trowsers, 9*s.* Apprentices can be had for the terms of three, seven, or ten years; seven is the usual period. A journeyman can have the work of an apprentice under him. If a man have not served his time, it is not of consequence in

any business; *competency*, not legal servitude, being the standard for employment. A journeyman tailor will rank but among the second-rate trades, so much being done by women and boys. A man that can cut out will be occasionally well paid: the women not being clever in this department, makes the employment of men necessary. There are ready-made clothes shops, as in London, at which articles of a cheaper but inferior description are sold. Large quantities of clothing are imported from England, and many individuals have their regular London tailors. Black and coloured Canton crape, black stuff, white jean, white drill, and Nankin, are worn for trowsers; jean for coats; gingham for jackets in the house; all of which are made by women, at from 25 to 50 per cent. cheaper than if men were employed. A man will earn, when employed, from 36s. to 54s. per week. To carry on this trade as a master, and with a reasonable prospect of success, would require a capital of from 500*l.* to 2000*l.* The profits are large. Moderate credit are received; long credit is given.

Booksellers' shops here are extensive. Old works are scarce, Standard works are not so; such as Shakespeare, Milton, Blair, and Johnson. Theological works (those only which are *orthodox*) are common, and much in request. Hartley, Priestley, and the religious writings of Locke, are scarce, English novels and poetry form the primary articles of a bookseller's business. They are quickly reprinted. Walter Scott, Miss Owenson, Moore, Miss Edgeworth, Miss Porter, and Lord Byron, are favourites. The late Scotch novels have been very much read. The Edinburgh and Quarterly Reviews are reprinted by Messrs. Kirk and Mercien of this city. *English Tory writers* are neither unknown nor unpopular. Booksellers deal in stationery and various fancy articles. Their stocks are large, but, what we should call in England, ill assorted. American editions of many British writings are *lower* in price, but *not cheaper* than those issuing from the London press; the size as well as quality of paper being reduced. Folio is diminished to quarto, quarto to octavo, and octavo to duodecimo. The American edition, for instance, of 'Lalla Rookh,' bears no comparison to that of

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Messrs. Longman and Co. Common stationery is of American manufacture; the superior, of British. Books pay upon importation 30 per cent.; printing types, 20; paper, 30; wafers, 30; playing cards, 30. Native binding is generally plain and common: many of the fine London pocket editions, bound, have been recently imported. A capital of from 1000*l.* to 10,000*l.* would be required in this business.

Printers are paid 2*l.* 5*s.* per week, but employment cannot be depended upon: a great portion of the work is done by boys. Stereotyping is practised.

The Lancasterian system of education is confined to free schools. One or two boarding seminaries exist in New York for ladies separately; but in general males and females, of all ages, are educated at the same establishment. The effect of this practice is not what might have been anticipated. American females are even more distant and reserved in their manners than English: the sexes seem ranked as distinct races of beings, between whom social converse is rarely to be held. Day-schools are numerous; some of them respectable, none large. A teacher, that is, an usher, at any of these establishments, is a situation not worth the attention of the poorest man. The emigrant proprietors of seminaries are Scotch and Irish; an instance has not occurred of a respectable English schoolmaster establishing himself here. Two English ladies have recently commenced a boarding-school for females only: they have been moderately successful. A capital of from one to five hundred pounds is essential: for a day-school none is required. The dead languages, music, surveying, drawing, dancing, and French, are taught at the superior schools: the latter is rather generally understood, and in some measure necessary, French families being more frequently met with here than in England. At some of the academies plays are occasionally acted. The charges at several seminaries are, for arithmetic, reading, and writing, per annum, 40 dollars; for geography, philosophy, and the French language, 60; for Greek, Latin, and the mathematics, 80 dollars: these amounts are exclusive of board.

Rents depend much upon situation. In the skirts of the town, a very small house, one story high, the front rooms of a moderate size, the back less, but suited for a bed, and with one room in the attic story, is from 12*l.* to 14*l.* per annum. A mechanic who has a family can have two small rooms for 18*l.* a year. Many houses have closets between their rooms, which serve for a bed; or sometimes are used as a pantry. It is also no uncommon occurrence for temporary beds to be laid out in dining-rooms and parlours: being, of course, removed sufficiently early in the morning to prevent inconvenience. Garrets generally have no plaistered ceiling. A very small house, in a situation not convenient for business, containing in all six rooms, is worth from 75*l.* to 80*l.* a year; a similar house, in a better situation, 95*l.* to 105*l.*; a ditto in a good street for business, 120*l.* to 140*l.*; a ditto in first-rate retail situation, 160*l.* to 200*l.* per annum: but this is the smallest class of houses. A first-rate private house is from 300*l.* to 360*l.* per annum: were it appropriated to business, the rent would be higher. Of a house in that part of the Broadway which is first-rate for retail trade, the rent of a shop and cellar only is 29*l.* 10*s.*; the upper part of the house lets for 24*l.* 10*s.* Ground lots for building, even in the suburbs, are enormously dear.

Philadelphia.

Wages.—Labourers are paid 4*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* 7½*d.* a day; female servants, 4*s.* 6*d.* to 9*s.* per week, with their board; cooks, 6*s.* 6*d.* to 9*s.*; men-servants, 5*s.* to 6*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* per month; carpenters earn 36*s.* to 4*l.* 7*s.* 3*d.* per week, time of work from sun-rise to sun-set; cabinet-makers, 36*s.* to 45*s.*; working generally by the piece; bricklayers, 31*s.* 6*d.* to 45*s.*; tinmen, 27*s.* to 54*s.*; shoemakers, 31*s.* 6*d.* to 40*s.* 6*d.*—they work more hours than in London; saddlers, 31*s.* 6*d.* to 45*s.*—this business at present is not good; coachmakers, 36*s.* to 45*s.*—at present bad here, but tolerably good at Newark in Jersey; tailors, 36*s.* to 45*s.*—a variable business, sometimes good employment, often not, it is largely in the hands of women;

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printers, compositors and pressmen, 36s. to 45s.—employment tolerably good, but not certain; apprentices perform a large portion of the work.

Individuals may get employment in any of the above trades, but there is no actual want of mechanics. Many leave here for the southern states and the western country. Men of this class of society may decidedly make themselves extremely comfortable in this place. Those who are here, speaking generally, receive higher wages, are more independent of their masters, live better, have less anxiety for the morrow, drink more, and are less intelligent than men following the like occupations in England.

Prices.—The prices of fish vary from 2d. to 6½d. per pound; beef, which is of excellent quality, 4d. to 5½d.; mutton, 3½d. to 4½d.; veal, 5½d.; pork, 5½d. to 7d.; bacon, 7d. to 8d.; butter, 17d. to 20d.; cheese, 9½d.; English ditto, 16d.; onions, 18d. per peck; potatoes, 8s. 4½d. a bushel; cabbages, 2½d. each; fowls, 12½d. to 2s. 3d. each; ducks, 20d. to 2s. 3d.; geese, 8s. 4½d. to 4s. 6d.; turkeys, 5s. 6d.; these four last articles are one half larger than those of England, but their flesh is inferior in quality; strong beer, 20d. per gallon; apples, 8s. 4½d. per bushel; flour, 10 dollars per barrel of 196 pounds; dipt candles are 10d. per pound; moulds, 12½d.; moist sugar, 6½d. to 9d.; lump ditto, 1s. to 1s. 5d.; tea, 4s. 6d. to 9s.; soap, 6½d. to 10d.; chocolate, 13½d. to 20d.; raw coffee, 10d. to 13½d.; Liverpool salt, 3s. 4½d. per bushel; loaf of bread, weighing 2 pounds 2 ounces, 5½d.; Indian corn, per bushel, 4s. 6d.; buck-wheat flour, 4s. 6d. Mechanics pay 19s. 6d. to 15s. 9d. per week for board and lodging; many board with their employers: all eat, work, and sleep in companies. Moderately respectable boarding is from 20s. 3d. to 27s.; genteel ditto, 31s. 6d. to 54s. Charge at the best inns, 9s. per day, exclusive of beer and liquors.

Shoes are 13s. 6d. to 15s. 9d. a pair; Wellington boots, 38s. 3d. to 45s.; Hessian ditto, 42s. 9d. to 45s.; jockey ditto, 67s. 6d.; ladies' shoes, 4s. 6d. to 5s. 7½d.—the leather is not good; upon a fair average, two pair of English will last as

long as three pair of American; the best beaver hats are 40s. 6d.; superfine cloth coats, 81. 1s. 6d.; surtout ditto, 117. 5s.; pantaloons and trousers, 40s. to 54s.; waistcoats, 27s. Clothes made of inferior materials, are from 25 to 50 per cent. lower. India and French silks, China crapes for ladies' dresses, and India handkerchiefs, are one half cheaper than in England. Other articles of wearing apparel, and almost every thing used in domestic economy, are of British manufacture. They pay an import duty of 25 per cent., and when retailed, are from 25 to 100 per cent. dearer than in London.

Alexandria.

Wages.—In this district, labourers, during harvest, receive about three dollars per day. Tailors have from five to six dollars and a half for making a coat; shoe-makers, one dollar or one and a quarter for making a pair of shoes; blacksmiths are paid two dollars per day, and are found in provisions; joiners and masons are paid from two and a half to three dollars per day, and coopers three dollars.

Prices.—House-rent is excessively high in this part. An ordinary house costs about 300 dollars per annum; and wood or coals costs a small family about four dollars every month. Provisions are moderate. Beef, mutton, pork, and veal, are from 2d. to 4d. per pound; and bread both much cheaper and better than what is generally used in England. Milk, butter, and vegetables, are high. Rum, 8s. 6d. per gallon; whiskey, 3s.; and brandy, 4s. 6d. Excellent porter is sold at 5d. per bottle. Furniture more elegant and cheaper than in England.

Pittsburg.

Prices.—Beef and mutton are 3d. to 4½d. per pound; pork, 4½d. to 5d.; cheese, 9½d. to 14d.; butter, 10d. to 20d.; tea, 6s. 9d. to 12s. 4d.; moist sugar, 13½d.; loaf, 20d. to 2s. 12.; coffee, 20d.; potatoes, 2s. 3d. to 8s. 4½d. per bushel; porter, 6½d. per quart; fowls, 13½d. each; ducks, 20d.; geese, 2s.

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3*d.* to 2*s.* 4*d.*; turkeys, 8*s.* 4*d.* to 5*s.* 8*d.*; flour, 27*s.* to 31*s.* 6*d.* per barrel of 196 pounds; coal, 4*d.* per bushel. Mechanics' board, 14*s.* 9*d.* to 18*s.* per week.

Wages.—Tailors earn from 31*s.* 6*d.* to 45*s.* per week, are now well employed; carpenter, 31*s.* 6*d.* to 40*s.* 6*d.*, dull; baker, 31*s.* 6*d.* to 40*s.* 6*d.*, dull; mason, 34*s.* to 45*s.* brisk; shoemaker, 31*s.* 6*d.* to 36*s.*, brisk; blacksmith, 31*s.* 6*d.* to 36*s.*, dull; tinman, from 36*s.* to 45*s.*, dull; printer, from 31*s.* to 36*s.*, dull; weaver, no employment; glass-blower, 31*s.* 6*d.* to 45*s.*, dull; glass-cutter, 31*s.* 6*d.* to 67*s.* 6*d.*, dull; hatter, 31*s.* 6*d.* to 45*s.*, brisk; brewer, 36*s.*, dull; nail-cutter, 31*s.* 6*d.* to 36*s.*, brisk.

Ohio.

The prices at Cincinnati in this state are as follows: Beef and mutton are from 2*s.* to 3*s.* 4*d.* per pound; veal, 4*d.*; pork, 2*s.* 4*d.* to 4*s.* 4*d.*; potatoes, 2*s.* 8*d.* a bushel; flour, 27*s.* a barrel of 196 pounds; fowls, 10*d.* each; geese, 2*s.* 8*d.* each; turkeys, 3*s.* 4*d.* to 4*s.* 6*d.*; moist sugar, 18*d.* a pound; loaf ditto, 20*d.*; porter, 27*s.* to 31*s.* 6*d.* per barrel of 32 gallons, 6*d.* per quart; cider, 11*s.* 3*d.* per barrel; gin, 5*s.* 7*d.* per gallon; whiskey, 2*s.* 8*d.*; brandy, 12*s.* 6*d.* to 18*s.*; rum, 11*s.* 3*d.*; shoes, 13*s.* 6*d.* to 15*s.* 9*d.* per pair; Wellington boots, 36*s.* to 40*s.* 6*d.*; Hessian ditto, 40*s.* 6*d.* to 54*s.*; superfine blue cloth, 2*s.* 13*s.* 6*d.* to 3*s.* 7*s.* 6*d.* per yard; making a coat, 27*s.*; hats of American manufacture, 31*s.* 6*d.* to 45*s.*; rent of two small rooms, 18*d.* per annum; ditto of a small house in a third or fourth-rate situation, from 33*d.* 15*s.* to 67*d.* 10*s.* The general average of houses, in good business situations, is from 90*d.* to 187*d.* 10*s.* per annum: taxes trifling. Women servants are paid 20*s.* 3*d.* to 29*s.* 3*d.* per month; men ditto, 63*s.* to 72*s.* Mechanics' board and lodging per week, 13*s.* 6*d.*; respectable ditto, 18*s.* to 22*s.* 6*d.*; ditto at the best inns, 47*s.* 3*d.* These charges are enormously disproportionate to the rate of provisions; although large rents, dear clothing, and high price of labour, are items of no small importance in the hotel and boarding-house keepers' calculations, and for which allowances should fairly be made. The

wages of mechanics, in all trades suited to the present condition of the country, vary from 86s. to 45s. per week. Tailors, shoe-makers, carpenters, blacksmiths, masons, and saddlers, are good trades, and at present are in full employ: these may be denominated first-rate; tinmen, bakers, and hatters, second-rate; printers, third-rate; for the weaver there is no employment. A watch-maker, as such, could not obtain a subsistence, watches not being manufactured in America; such a mechanic possibly could get a living by mending watches, and attending to every department of silversmith's work. It is thought there is an opening for a dyer, there being but one in the town,—an old woman.

Albany.

Shopkeepers here complain most bitterly of the state of trade. A large body of mechanics recently left here for want of employment;—the wages given to those who remain are the same as at New York: their board is three dollars per week. Rent of a house and shop in a good situation is from 500 to 700 dollars per annum, and the taxes about 20 dollars. There are many small wood houses, which are from 50 to 150 dollars per annum, according to size and situation. Beef, mutton, and veal, are 5d. to 6½d. per pound; fowls, 8d. to 9½d. each; ducks, 13d. to 16d.; geese, 2s. 3d.; butter, 14d. a pound; potatoes, 20d. a bushel; flour, 45s. a barrel; fish, 4d. to 7d. a pound; rum and gin, 4s. 6d. per gallon; brandy and hollands, 9s. 6d.

Western Country.

Throughout the whole western country, mechanics are well paid for their labour. Carpenters have one dollar per day and their board; if they board themselves, one dollar and a quarter. Other trades have in proportion. Labourers are paid one dollar per day. Living is cheap. Flour is 5 dollars per barrel; beef, 4 cents or 2d. per lb.; fowls, 12½ cents each. House-rent for mechanics is about 60 dollars per annum. Wood, one dollar and a quarter per cord, laid down. Mechanics' board, two or three dollars per week. Thus it ap-

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pears that an industrious, healthy, sober man, may save two days' wages each week, or one-third of his income. There are indeed few so provident; but those who can resist the temptations to drink, may live well and save money.

We could extend this article to a great length: but too many particulars would only tend to perplex the anxious enquirer; and the preceding will afford a good criterion for judging of the encouragement offered to the labouring classes in the States, which have been very properly and emphatically termed, 'The poor Man's Country.' Much of the foregoing information is derived from a gentleman who devoted his attention to the subject, and whose correctness in matters of fact has never been disputed. We cannot, however, close without quoting the prices as given by Mr. Cobbett, whose information on this, as well as on every other subject, will be differently estimated by different people.

'Every man may see what this country is. But I should suppose these facts were enough: The common day wages for a common labourer is a dollar. Beef is 3*d.* (English money) a pound; mutton, 2½*d.*; lamb, 4*d.*; veal, 4*d.*; hog-meat, 5*d.*; flour (the best), 2½*d.*; spirits, about 2*s.* a gallon; sugar, *half* the English price; tea, soap, candles, the same; tobacco and salt, about an *eighth part* of the English price; shoes, cheaper than in England by one-third; linen and woollen, the same price as in England; all India goods, *half* the English price; malt, *half* the price; hops, a *third part* of the price of hops in England; sweet oil, a *third part*; claret wine, *ten-pence* (English money) a quart, while in England it is six or eight shillings! cheese, butter, eggs, all for *two-thirds*, at most, of the English price. Journeymen tradesmen earn, on an average, about a dollar and three-quarters a day; or *nine shillings*, English money. It is then impossible that any, but the sick, lame, or lazy, should be unfortunate.'

The Shamrock Society of New York, in their Hints to Emigrants, say, 'Industrious men need never lack employment in America. Labourers, carpenters, masons, bricklayers, stonecutters, blacksmiths, turners, weavers, farmers, curriers, tailors, and shoe-makers, and the useful mechanics generally,

are always sure of work and wages. Stonecutters now receive, in this city, (New York,) two dollars a day, equal to nine shillings sterling; carpenters, one dollar and eighty-seven and a half cents; bricklayers, two dollars; labourers, from one dollar to one and a quarter; others in proportion. At this time, (July, 1816,) house-carpenters, bricklayers, masons, and stonecutters, are paid three dollars per day in Petersburg, Virginia. The town was totally consumed by fire about a year since, but it is now rising from its ashes in more elegance than ever. Mechanics will find ample employment there for perhaps two years to come.

It is customary in America for mechanics to work from sunrise to sun-set. This time appears oppressively long to an Englishman, and it is certainly an impolitic arrangement, the necessity for which no longer exists. But then in the northern states mechanics, in general, take too much relaxation in winter, during which the money accumulated in a toilsome summer is too often squandered away. In the southern states, the heat of the climate renders frequent intervals of rest absolutely necessary.

The Americans are peculiarly handy. They know and can do a little of every thing. In this case, they have greatly the advantage of an English labourer, who has to learn a great deal before he can expect the same wages that are paid to a native. In the dexterous use of the spade we certainly surpass them: but then the spade is very little used in the States, the plough being introduced wherever it is possible.

Price of Land.—The price of land is various, according to situation and quality. The United States lands, as before stated, are 2 dollars per acre on credit, or 1 dollar 64 cents cash; but purchases can often be made of individuals on better terms, particularly from those who hold very large tracts. The land tax on a large tract is heavy, and after paying it a few years, without getting any return, the holders, particularly non-residents, are glad to sell out at any price. This circumstance, connected with that of the United States holding such large tracts of land at a low price, will always operate against land speculations on a large scale. The only mode in which a

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land trade can be profitable is to purchase a tract for cash, subdivide it into farms of different sizes to accommodate different settlers, and dispose of them at fair prices as soon as possible. In this way the land trade is fair and honourable, being exactly similar to that of buying any other commodity by wholesale, and selling it by retail; the public are accommodated, and the land-dealer has his certain reward. In any other way speculations in land are hazardous. Good lands rise in value certainly: but such as speculate in them on a large scale, with a view of making money, will in all probability be disappointed; for the accumulation of interest, and the operation of the land-tax, will be found, generally, to amount to more than the rise on the lands.

New York.

In Long Island and the vicinity of New York, land is rising rapidly in value. Land is worth from 8*l*. 7*s*. 6*d*. to 24*l*. per acre. Farmers do not succeed very well, from the indifference of soil, high price of labour, and general want of capital. The breed of horses is good, but not large: one fit for a waggon is worth 22*l*. 10*s*.; a saddle or drawing horse, 35*l*.; gig horse, 33*l*. 15*s*. to 56*l*. 5*s*.; carriage ditto, 90*l*. to 190*l*.; fine riding ditto, 90*l*. to 120*l*. Cows are worth—lean, 9*l*.; fat, 11*l*. 5*s*. to 13*l*. 10*s*. Pigs are sold, per pound, alive; the present price is 7*d*.; sheep, 9*s*. They are very small: an entire carcass is not much larger than a Leicestershire leg of mutton. A sheep, when fattened for market, is 13*s*. 6*d*. A good farm cart is worth 7*l*. to 9*l*.; a ditto waggon, 22*l*. to 23*l*.; a farmer's man-servant, 24*l*. to 30*l*. per year; a ditto woman, 12*l*. to 16*l*. Early wheat is cut in the middle of July. The wheat and rye harvest is completed by the end of August; buck-wheat, in October; Indian corn, ditto; oats, middle of August; grass, from 1st to the end of July. The seed for winter, rye and wheat, is sown from end of August to end of September.

Pennsylvania.

There are good farms within 20 miles of Philadelphia, which can be purchased at from 80 to 100 dollars per acre, buildings

included. Limestone land will sell for 200 dollars. In a farm of 200 acres, the proportion may be estimated at 90 acres of ploughing, 50 of meadow, 10 of orchard, and 50 of wood land. The latter, near the city, is worth 3 to 400 dollars per acre. A farm of the above description is worth, if within five miles of the capital, 20,000 dollars; at from 20 to 40 miles' distance, 10,000 dollars. Uncleared lands, in remote parts of the state, vary in price from half a dollar to 20 dollars per acre.

The Pennsylvanian horse is a medium between our saddle and heavy cart horses, and is well suited for most purposes. They are worth from 50 to 150 dollars (11*l*. 2*s*. 6*d*. to 23*l*. 7*s*. 6*d*.). A farm waggon will cost 100 to 120 dollars (22*l*. 10*s*. to 27*l*.); a family ditto, 70 to 90 dollars; ditto with springs, 150 dollars; neat gig, 300; best ditto, 450; a farm cart, 50 dollars. The annual expence of keeping a family waggon and horse is about 50 dollars.

Well-improved land will produce, on an average, 25 bushels of wheat per acre (a farmer within eight miles of the city has raised 40); ditto of Indian corn, 25 to 50. Wheat is sold at from 160 to 220 cents (7*s*. 8*d*. to 9*s*. 11*d*.) per bushel; Indian corn, 80 to 100 cents (3*s*. 7*d*. to 4*s*. 6*d*.); oats, 40 to 55 cents (1*s*. 9*d*. to 2*s*. 5*d*.); they are lighter than the English. Meadows are usually ploughed in rotation, and planted with Indian corn. Orchards are also put under the plough, grain not being considered as injurious to the fruit. A good milch cow, four years old, is worth 5*l*. 13*s*. 6*d*. Sheep are much smaller than ours. Half-blood Merino are 11*s*. 3*d*.; three-quarters blood, 13*s*. 6*d*.; full ditto, 22*s*. 6*d*.; rams are 4*l*. 10*s*. to 11*l*. 2*s*. 6*d*.; pigs four weeks old are 2*s*. 3*d*.; a sow and ditto, 1*l*. 11*s*. 6*d*. to 2*l*. 14*s*.; a hog of 100 pounds, 1*l*. 11*s*. 6*d*. to 2*l*. 5*s*.; a yoke of oxen, 15*l*. 15*s*. to 28*l*. 10*s*.

Pittsburg.

Land in the neighbourhood of Pittsburg is worth 100 dollars per acre. At a distance of from five to twenty miles, tracts of from 100 to 500 acres, containing meadow, pasturage, arable, and part covered with wood, have been recently sold

at from 20 to 100 bushel; Indian cart-horse is worth 100; a saddle horse, a family horse from one to two pounds; a good demand since worth here 5*s*. bred, 2*s*. 3*d*.; containing ten in the country made upon the towns, a similar five of the group towns that from the city of London

The price of circumstances, such as the contiguity of the land, its water streams. A general Those within 5 miles, from 5 to 10 improvements to is computed to per acre, and value. As wheat requires from 20 to 30 bushels of rye; 1000 to 1500 quantity of hemp frequently a much of good field need expence of such dollars; ditto for

at from 20 to 30 dollars per acre. Wheat brings a dollar a bushel; Indian corn, 75 cents a bushel. A four year old cart-horse is worth from 20 to 30 dollars; a gig ditto, 50 to 100; a saddle ditto, 20 to 150; a farmer's waggon, 100 dollars; a family ditto, from 50 to 70; cart, 50. Sheep are from one to three dollars; live hogs from 2½d. to 4½d. a pound; a good roasting pig, 4s. 6d. Wool is but little in demand since the termination of the war. Clean Merino is worth here 5s. 8d. to 6s. 9d. per pound; fleece, 3s. 5d.; half-bred, 2s. 3d.; quarter, 21d. A brick house, two stories high, containing ten rooms, may be built, with good management, in the country for 4000 dollars (900l.), as the bricks can be made upon the land, and the 'help' boarded in the house. In towns, a similar building will cost 6000 dollars (1350l.) exclusive of the ground, which, in particular situations, as of all towns that promise well, is dearer than the most choice spot in the city of London!

Kentucky.

The price of lands in this state depends on a variety of circumstances, such as the convenience of shipping produce, the contiguity of the same to some populous town, the quality of the land, its water privileges, and the permanency of such streams. A general estimation may be made as follows:—Those within 5 miles of its capital are from 20 to 40 dollars per acre; 5 to 10 miles, 10 to 20 dollars; 10 to 15 miles, from 5 to 15 dollars. This statement supposes no improvements to have been made on the land. Such land is computed to produce from 50 to 75 bushels of Indian corn per acre, and very frequently 100 bushels when well tilled. As wheat requires land not so rich, its produce is less, being from 20 to 30 bushels per acre; 30 to 40 of oats; 20 to 30 of rye; 1000 to 1500 pounds of tobacco, and about the same quantity of hemp, may be taken as fair averages, although frequently a much greater quantity is produced. 'The price of good field negroes is now about 800 dollars. The annual expence of such hands may be estimated at from 75 to 100 dollars; ditto for clothing, at from 12 to 15 more;—say toge-

show 87 to 115, or an average of 100 dollars per annum. Their provisions differ but little from hired white servants. In general, farmers command a ready cash sale for their produce. The old custom of carrying it to the New Orleans market is nearly superseded by the creation of a new order of tradesmen, who are a medium between the western farmer and the Orleans merchant.

Ohio.

In the state of Ohio, the United States' lands sell at two dollars per acre. Taxes on wild land, says Fearon, 'are, on first-rate 2 dollars per hundred acres; 1½ dollar on second-rate; one dollar on third-rate. There is also a county-tax of half the above amounts, as the case may be. These taxes of 6s. 9d. to 18s. 6d. on an hundred acres are certainly very small, at least with our English ideas of taxation and of produce; yet you would be astonished to witness the numerous lots of land which are sold at auction in all the states on account of *non-payment* of taxes. I have seen lists in the newspapers, and at the taverns, which could not contain less in each than four hundred names of defaulters, whose property was to be transferred to the highest bidder.'

Well-prepared land in this state produces, per acre, 30 bushels of wheat; 50 to 75 of Indian corn; 50 to 75 of rye. Horses are worth from 40 to 100 dollars (9l. to 22l. 10s.) Cows, (four years old,) 12 to 20 dollars (54s. to 90s.) The yearly wages of a labouring man is from 58l. 10s. to 65l.; of a woman, 31l. 10s.

Illinois.

Private sales at the land-office are here, as in all other parts of the Union, fixed at 2 dollars, or 1 dollar 64 cents for prompt payment. The public sales by auction have not, for the most choice tracts, exceeded six dollars per acre: the old French settlements are from 1 to 50 dollars per acre. The land-tax is levied on the same principle as described in Ohio. The military bounty lands in this state amount to 3,500,000 acres. They are appropriated to the soldiers who were en-

gaged in the eastern state. Indian corn (are some fields of a whole acre of a whole the soil is to are also produced. French have grows here in care, and in wheat, 20 to 10 to 18 hundred bushel; wheat hundred. T 4l. to 5l.; a hundred; per day, and dear. Indian in June, and in December. tance 307 miles from Shawnee from New Orleans 1013 miles,) disproportion in time, in and Mississippi 11l. 5s. to 16l. to 150l.; a log barn, 18l. to 20l. land, 16d. to 20d.

Arable land, worth from 50 farm-house and land, at from 8 dollars;—meadow

gaged in the late war, and are frequently sold by them in the eastern states, for a quarter and a half dollar per acre. Indian corn (maize) is the leading article of produce. There are some fields of 500 acres, cultivated in common by the people of a whole settlement. Wheat is abundant, except where the soil is too rich. Flax, hemp, oats, potatoes, and cotton are also productive, giving very considerable crops. The French have made excellent wine from a wild grape, which grows here luxuriantly. Indian corn produces, with moderate care, and in a favourable soil, 50 to 70 bushels per acre; wheat, 20 to 30; barley, 20 to 30; oats, 30 to 50; tobacco, 10 to 13 hundred. Indian corn sells from 13*d.* to 16½*d.* per bushel; wheat, 3*s.* 4½*d.*; oats, 19½*d.*; tobacco, 20*s.* 3*d.* per hundred. The price of horses is from 13*l.* 10*s.* to 18*l.*; cows, 4*l.* to 5*l.*; a good sow, 2*l.* 14*s.*; beef is sold at 22*s.* 6*d.* per hundred; pork, 15*s.* 9*d.* to 18*s.* Labourers are paid 2*s.* 3*d.* per day, and board. Clothing and groceries are extremely dear. Indian corn is gathered in November. Wheat is cut in June, and housed in July. Pork for exportation is killed in December. Freight from Shawnee town to Louisville (distance 307 miles) is 5*s.* per cwt.; from Louisville, 1*s.* 8*d.*; from Shawnee to New Orleans, (distance 1130 miles,) 4*s.* 6*d.*; from New Orleans, 20*s.* 3*d.*; Shawnee to Pittsburg, (distance 1013 miles,) 15*s.* 9*d.*; from Pittsburg, 4*s.* 6*d.* This vast disproportion in charge of freight is produced by the difference in time, in navigating *up* and *down* the streams of the Ohio and Mississippi. A log cabin of two rooms can be raised for 11*l.* 5*s.* to 16*l.*; a frame house, 10 to 14 feet square, for 130*l.* to 150*l.*; a log kitchen, 7*l.* to 8*l.*; a log stable, 7*l.* to 9*l.*; a barn, 18*l.* to 22*l.*; fencing, 13*d.* per rood; ditching, in prairie land, 16*d.* to 2*s.* per rood.

New England.

Arable land, in the immediate neighbourhood of Boston, is worth from 50 to 100 dollars per acre (11*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.* to 22*l.* 5*s.*), farm-house and buildings included. The same quantity of land, at from 8 to 30 miles from Boston, brings from 20 to 30 dollars;—meadow and pasturage, from 10 to 30 dollars; or-

chard ditto, 50 to 100 dollars per acre. Wood land, *near* towns, is, of course, more valuable than any other, its worth also increasing yearly. Moderate-sized farms usually contain all the different kinds of land, in, of course, varied proportions. Plaister of Paris is used for manure. There are some rich farmers in the New England states, but generally it is not an occupation by which more than a living can be obtained.

Gentlemen-farmers do not make more than from two to three per cent. of their capital. The more wealthy farmers, from 20 to 40 miles from Boston, own large pastures, at the distance of from 30 to 60 miles from their residence; and in the mountainous parts of New Hampshire and Vermont, cattle and sheep are fattened for the Boston market.

V. THE RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF A PERMANENT SETTLER.

A person who lands in America with the intention of settling, ought, as soon as possible, to acquire a correct notion of the laws and duties required of him by the society which he has adopted. This subject is explained with considerable clearness by the committee of the Shamrock Society, and which we will therefore present to our readers.

‘Before any other step towards forming a settlement, the stranger should take the proper measures for acquiring citizenship; and the advantages of this are important and obvious, independent of its conferring political privileges. Without it you will remain exempted, indeed, by mild laws, from wrong; but destitute of some valuable positive rights. The alien, in most of the states, is not entitled to hold any lands, can obtain no office under the state, nor participate in the shipping interest of the country.

‘It is fit the emigrant should be distinctly apprised (for it will conciliate his attachment and gratitude to the country of his adoption) that no where in the world is a well-conducted foreigner received into the bosom of the state with equal liberality and readiness as in America. When, on the 4th of July, 1776, the congress unanimously adopted a Declaration of Independence, and delivered their country from the domi-

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nion of the king of England, this was one of the complaints alleged against him: "He has endeavoured to prevent the population of these states; for that purpose obstructing the laws for naturalization of foreigners." The same liberal feeling has prevailed in the government of the United States, from that memorable day to this, with one exception, during the administration of president Adams. The stranger, however, is certainly exposed to incidents which may lead him to doubt the truth of this assertion. He may light upon an ignorant, a prejudiced, or illiberal wretch, who will manifest an ill will towards him, because he is a foreigner, and perhaps revive British and royalists' taunts in a new form: but these, the scum of a country, are totally insignificant when compared with the mass of the people. The best men in America have always been ready to welcome the valuable emigrant, the stranger of moral and industrious habits. An author, eminent as a statesman, a scholar, and philosopher, speaking in his Discourse to the Philosophical Society of New York, of the advantages which Cicero boasted that Rome had derived from Athens, adds—

"We are perhaps more favoured in another point of view. Attica was peopled from Egypt; but we can boast of our descent from a superior stock—I speak not of families or dynasties; I refer to our origin from those nations where civilization, knowledge, and refinement, have erected their empire, and where human nature has attained its greatest perfection. Annihilate Holland, Great Britain, Ireland, France, and Germany, and what would become of civilized man? This country, young as it is, would be the great Atlas remaining to support the dignity of the world. And, perhaps, our mingled descent from various nations may have a benign influence upon genius. We perceive the improving effects of an analogous state upon vegetables and inferior animals. The extraordinary character which the United States have produced may be, in some measure, ascribed to the mixed blood of so many nations flowing in our veins: and it may be confidently said, the operation of causes, acting with irresistible effect, will carry, in this country, all the improvable faculties of human

nature to the highest state of perfection." (*See Clinton's Introductory Discourse.*)

'You will, however, observe, that the privilege of citizenship is not granted without proper precautions; to secure that, while the worthy are admitted, the unworthy should, if practicable, be rejected. You will from hence deduce the importance of good moral habits, even to the acquisition of political rights.

'The steps to be taken by a foreigner preparatory to, and for the purpose of his being naturalized, are these:—

'1st. He must, at least five years before he can be admitted a citizen of the United States, report himself at the office of one of the courts of record, within the state or territory where he may be; and in that report set forth his name, birth-place, age, nation, and prior allegiance, together with the country which he has left to come into the United States, and the place of his intended settlement. In general, forms of this report will be furnished by the clerk of the court, who will also give a certificate under the seal of the court, that the report has been made and filed. This certificate must be carefully kept, for the purpose of being produced at the time of application for admission to citizenship.

'This step of reporting one's arrival is indispensable, and ought to be taken as soon as possible, because the five years of probation begin to be counted only from the date of the report; and the time which a foreigner may have previously spent in the country cannot be rendered of any service towards his naturalization.

'2d. At least three years before the alien can be naturalized, he must appear before some one of the courts of record, within the state or territory where he may be, and there declare, on oath, that it is in good faith his intention to become a citizen of the United States; to renounce, for ever, all allegiance and fidelity to any sovereign prince, potentate, state, or sovereignty whatever; and particularly, by name, to the prince, potentate, state, or sovereign, whereof he may, at the time, be a citizen or subject. This oath, or affirmation, which must have been made at least three years before the admission

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or citizenship, may be made at any convenient time after the report of arrival. Indeed, it is sometimes made on the same day, so as to save trouble, and prevent disappointment from future negligence or forgetfulness. For another reason that will be presently pointed out, the sooner it is done the safer and the better. The clerk of the court also gives a certificate that this oath or affirmation has been duly made, which, like the former, must be carefully kept, for the purpose of being produced at the time of applying for naturalization.

'3d. At this period, the applicant, after producing both those certificates, must declare on oath, or affirmation, before some of the same courts, that he will support the constitution of the United States. He must also satisfy the court (which cannot be done by the affidavit of the applicant himself, and is usually done by the affidavits of two respectable citizens, who know and can testify to the facts) that he has resided within the United States five years at least, and within the state or territory where he applies to be admitted at least one year, and that during such time he has behaved as a man of good moral character, attached to the principles of the constitution of the United States, and well disposed to the good order and happiness of the same. The clerk will thereupon make out a certificate of naturalization, under the seal of the court; which should be carefully kept, and ready to be produced whenever it may be requisite.

'The liberality of congress has extended the benefits of this admission to citizenship beyond those who perform these requisites; for the children of a person so naturalized, being under age, and dwelling in the United States at the time of their parents' naturalization, also become citizens. And still further, if any alien who shall have regularly reported himself, and made oath or affirmation declaratory of his intentions, (which, as we have seen, must precede his own admission by three years,) should unfortunately die before he was actually naturalized, his widow and children would thenceforth be considered as citizens of the United States, and be entitled to all rights and privileges as such, upon taking the oaths prescribed

by law. This provision, therefore, furnishes a very strong inducement for losing no time in taking the oath declaratory of the party's intention.

'In the interval between the emigrant's choosing a place of abode, and completing the five years of probationary residence, which must elapse before he can become a citizen of the United States, he will do well to familiarise himself with the state of parties, and acquire a correct knowledge of our constitutions of civil government. He will become a respectable and capable citizen in proportion to his information and virtue. Liberty and justice are the leading principles of our government, which, as it secures liberty and property, and neither makes nor suffers religious distinctions, better deserves the fidelity of good men than the tyrannical governments of Europe. Our's maintains the rights of the people; their's, the absolute power of princes.

'No emigrant ought to stay more than one week in the country, without endeavouring to procure the constitution of the United States, and, at least, that of the state in which he means to reside. The Federal Constitution, and those of the several states, are printed and bound together in a neat pocket volume, with the Declaration of Independence, and form a Political Bible, well deserving the study of every reflecting republican.

'The greater part of our state constitutions were formed soon after the Declaration of Independence was proclaimed by congress. By them are regulated the internal local relations of citizens in each state; they constitute the main guards of our freedom. The general government (whose constitution was formed by delegates from twelve states, assembled in convention at Philadelphia, in 1787) has the sole direction of our foreign affairs, and the mutual relations of the states. The government of the United States is administered by a president and vice-president, elected for four years; by a senate of two members from each state, elected for six years; by a house of representatives, chosen for two years by the people; and by judges, &c. appointed according to law. The senators

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are elected by the states, and this feature of the constitution is deemed federal; the representatives are elected by the people, and here the constitution is more particularly national.

'In each of these states there is a governor and two legislative branches chosen by the people, or their representatives, according to each constitution. The governor in each state is, by virtue of his office, commander-in-chief of the militia of the same.

'When the federal constitution was formed, it was laid before the people, who, in each state, chose a convention to adopt or reject it. It was debated in every convention with uncommon ardour, and finally adopted in 1788. The speeches made on those occasions shed streams of light on the science of government, and its just division of power: neither foreigners nor natives can read them too carefully.

'During the discussion of the federal constitution, advocates of some of its most federative provisions were called Federalists. But when it was adopted it became the law to all, and was in all its parts sincerely agreed to by all; those opposite terms, therefore, ceased to be properly applicable any longer. Yet a political party seized hold of the epithet, which was merely occasional, and have made it perpetual. They are called Federalists to this day, without any reference to the origin of the term; the opposite party are known as Republicans or Democrats, terms significant of their attachment to popular government. The federal party, on the contrary, or, to speak more correctly, many of their leaders, are thought to have a leaning towards aristocracy.

'We ought never to be the slaves or dupes of mere names; and it will become the duty of a good citizen to act with one party or the other, as far as he thinks its means more honourable, and its objects more just.

'When the federal party were in power, a law was passed authorising the president of the United States to send friendly aliens out of the country, on mere suspicion; without the intervention of judge or jury! This is remembered as the Alien Act. Moreover, citizenship could not be then acquired without a previous residence of fourteen years.

'On the 4th of March, 1801, a democratic administration came into power; president Jefferson having been chosen instead of Mr. Adams. The acts of the government soon manifested a more liberal spirit. The following passage from Mr. Jefferson's message to congress, December 8, 1801, had its influence on, or harmonised with, the general opinion as to the impolicy (to say the least) of the inhospitable acts which we have just mentioned:—

"I cannot omit recommending a revival of the laws on the subject of naturalization. Considering the ordinary chances of human life, a denial of citizenship under a residence of fourteen years is a denial to a great proportion of those who ask it, and controls a policy pursued from their first settlement by many of the states, and still believed of consequence to their prosperity, &c. &c. Shall oppressed humanity find no asylum on this globe? The constitution, indeed, has wisely provided that, for admission to certain offices of important trust, a residence shall be required sufficient to develope character and design. But might not the general character and capabilities of a citizen be safely communicated to every one manifesting a *bona fide* purpose of embarking his life and fortunes permanently with us?"

'Let us not be suspected of indulging in narrow prejudices, of inflaming party feeling, or saying that one set of politicians are exclusively the friends of aliens, another entirely hostile; we have given you specimens of the policy of each. The sentiments of Mr. Jefferson, just cited, reflect great credit on his head and heart. So far, however, from inviting aliens to plunge into politics, we dissuade them from it; it is their duty to be modest observers of parties and principles; it is their part to form opinions, but not to meddle; to see, but not to touch; to look on, but not to interfere; until having been five years spectators of the busy and important movements of a nation of freemen, they may become actors in their turn, under the solemn obligation which citizenship imposes.

'The source of every blessing, and itself the most valuable of all which America offers to the emigrant, is a degree of civil and political liberty more ample, and better secured, in

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this republic than any where in the whole world besides. The persecutions of kings and priests, and the denial of rights, which drove a freedom-loving race from Europe to these shores, the same continue to operate to the present day. This is all to our gain; for they who escape from the dungeons of tyranny there, will here be zealous to support the noble edifice of liberty; while the private welfare of each man, fairly pursued, forms the benefit of all, and constitutes the public good.

The principles of liberty which are embodied in our frame of government and in our laws, branch out likewise through every department of society, mould our manners, and determine the character even of our domestic relations. They have the effect of producing, generally, in the deportment of individuals, who know neither superiors nor inferiors, a certain degree of ease and dignity, that is equally removed from servility and arrogance. It is one of the practical results of those principles, that the poorer classes in this community are more civilized, more polite and friendly, though not so submissive, as persons of the same fortunes in Europe. They are also usually followed by impartial justice in the equal distribution of family property. Hence opulence is rarely seen to accumulate in one branch, while others languish in genteel beggary. As there is no where an aristocratic establishment, the amplitude of the community is never broken up into little compartments, envious and contemptuous of each other.— Every man's range of occupation is extended, while every state is held worthy of respect. Honest industry no where degrades, but the facility of providing for a family is every where enlarged.

Nothing is more worthy of regard than the contrast between the general demeanour of Europeans living here, and what is alleged of the same people, and others similar to them, whilst under the yoke of transatlantic governments. In New York city alone are supposed to be not less than twelve thousand Irish, and the number of all other foreigners may probably be as many. The other great cities of the United States have an equal proportion according to their population; and emigrants from the old world are settled, and in progress of

settlement, every where throughout the Union; yet here they are never accused of sedition, or rebellion, or conspiracy against the government. They are never disarmed by a military force; and no magistrate trembles when they provide themselves with ammunition. They are, indeed, the most strenuous supporters of the government; and it is evident that a country may exist in the utmost good order, peace, and prosperity, under such a system of law as they are willing to maintain with their lives. It is manifest, therefore, that if the laws were in Europe what they are here, Europe need not drive her children into exile. The same men who are called rebels there, are esteemed and tranquil citizens here, without having changed their nature or their sentiments. But here the law is made by the majority for the good of the great number; and for this reason it is essentially equal and impartial. It prohibits nothing but what is in itself morally wrong. Hence, there are fewer laws, and fewer transgressions; but when a real transgression happens, an offended community is always prompt to support the law; for it then vindicates its own decision, and its own safety.

You then, who left the abject condition of European subjects; who will never encounter the persecution of kings, lords, or hierarchies; who are now beyond the fantastic tyranny of those governments that exterminate catholics in one country, and connive at the massacre of protestants in another; what more is requisite to engage your love and veneration of the free constitution of America, than to remember what you were, what you have witnessed, what you have suffered, and to reflect on what you are about to become, and the blessings you have it in your power to enjoy?

Such is the representation made by this Irish society as an encouragement for their countrymen to emigrate. By the tenor of the foregoing pages, it will be understood that we consider the United States as the best country in the world for a poor labouring man; though the ardent and enlightened lover of freedom must not expect to find that pure and disinterested patriotism in men holding official situations, which he may have expected.

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In the account given of the different states, the various plans of government which they have adopted are noticed: 'In most of the state-governments,' says Mr. Cobbett, 'the election is annual for the house of representatives. In some, the governor and the senate are elected for a longer period, not exceeding four years in any case. But, in some, the whole, governor, senate, and representatives, are elected ANNUALLY; and this last appears now to be the prevailing taste. The suffrage, or qualifications of electors, is very various. In some states every free man, that is, every man who is not bondman or slave, has a vote. In others, the payment of a tax is required. In others, a man must be worth a hundred pounds. In Virginia a man must be a *freholder*.

In Virginia, and the states where negro slavery exists, the slaves are reckoned amongst the population in apportioning the seats in the general congress. So that, the slaves do not vote; but their owners have votes for them. The right of suffrage in America is, however, upon the whole, sufficient to guard the people against any general and long-existing abuse of power; for, let it be borne in mind, that here the people elect all the persons who are to exercise power; while, even if our Reform were obtained, there would still be two branches out of the three, over whom the people would have no direct controul. Besides, in England, Ireland, and Scotland, there is an established church; a richly endowed and powerful hierarchy; and this, which is really a fourth branch of the government, has nothing to resemble it in America. So that, in this country, the whole of the government may be truly said to be in the hands of the people. The people are, in reality as well as in name, represented.

The consequences of this are, 1st, That, if those who are chosen do not behave well, they are not chosen a second time. 2d, That there are no sinecure placemen and place women, grantees, pensioners without services, and big placemen who swallow the earnings of two or three thousand men each. 3d, That there is no military staff to devour more than the whole of a government ought to cost. 4th, That there are no proud and insolent grasping borough-mongers, who make the people

toil and sweat to keep them and their families in luxury. 5th, That seats in the congress are not like stalls in Smithfield, bought and sold, or hired out. 6th, That the members of congress do not sell their votes at so much a vote. 7th, That there is no waste of the public money, and no expenses occasioned by the bribing of electors, or by the hiring of spies and informers. 8th, That there are no shootings of the people, and no legal murders committed, in order to defend the government against the just vengeance of an oppressed and insulted nation; but all is harmony, peace, and prosperity. Every man is zealous in defence of the laws, because every man knows that he is governed by laws, to which he has really and truly given his assent."

The same writer afterwards observes, "But it is not the name of *republic* that secures these, or any other of the blessings of freedom. As gross acts of tyranny may be committed, and as base corruption practised, under that name as under the name of absolute monarchy. And it becomes the people of America to guard their minds against ever being, in any case, amused with names. It is the fair representation of the people that is the cause of all the good; and, if this be obtained, I, for my part, will never quarrel with any body about names."

He continues, "On the subject of taxes and priests, I will address myself more immediately to my old neighbours at Botley, and endeavour to make them understand what America is as to taxes and priests. Worried, my old neighbours, as you are by tax-gatherers of all descriptions, from the county-collector, who rides in his coach and four, down to the petty window-peeper, the little miserable spy, who is constantly on the look-out for you, as if he were a thief-catcher and you were thieves; devoured as you are by these vermin, big and little, you will with difficulty form an idea of the state of America in this respect. It is a state of such blessedness, when compared with the state of things in England, that I despair of being able to make you fully comprehend what it is. Here a man may make new windows, or shut up old windows, as often as he pleases, without being compelled under a

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penalty to give notice to some insolent tax-gathering spy. Here he may keep as many horses as he likes, he may ride them or drive them at his pleasure, he may sell them or keep them, he may lend them or breed from them; he may, as far as their nature allows, do the same with regard to his dogs; he may employ his servants in his house, in his stables, in his garden, or in his fields, just as he pleases; he may, if he be foolish enough, have armorial bearings on his carriage, his watch-seals, on his plate, and, if he likes, on his very buckets and porridge pots; he may write his receipts, his bills, his leases, his bonds, and deeds upon unstamped paper; his wife and daughters may wear French gloves and lace, and French and India silks; he may purchase or sell lands, and may sue at law for his rights: and all these, and a hundred other things, without any dread of the interloping and insolent interference of a tax-gatherer or spy of any description. Lastly, when he dies, he can bequeath his money and goods and houses and lands to whomsoever he pleases: and he can close his eyes without curses in his heart against a rapacious band of placemen, pensioners, grantees, sinecure holders, staff-officers, borough-jobbers, and blood-money spies, who stand ready to take from his friends, his relations, his widow, and his children, a large part of what he leaves, under the name of a tax upon legacies.

‘But you will ask, “Are there no taxes in America?” Yes; and taxes, or public contributions of some sort, there must be in every civilised state; otherwise government could not exist, and without government there could be no security for property or persons. The taxes in America consist principally of custom duties imposed on goods imported into the country. During the late war, there were taxes on several things in the country; but they were taken off at the peace. In the cities and large towns, where paving and lamps and drains and scavengers are necessary, there are, of course, direct contributions to defray the expence of these. There are also, of course, county rates and road rates. But as the money thus raised is employed for the immediate benefit of those who pay, and is expended amongst themselves and under their own immediate

inspection, it does not partake of the nature of a tax. The taxes or duties on goods imported yield a great sum of money; and, owing to the persons employed in the collection being appointed for their integrity and ability, and not on account of their connection with any set of bribing and corrupt borough-mongers, the whole of the money thus collected is fairly applied to the public use, and is amply sufficient for all the purposes of government. The army, if it can be so called, costs but a mere trifle. It consists of a few men, who are absolutely necessary to keep forts from crumbling down, and guns from rotting with rust. The navy is an object of care, and its support and increase a cause of considerable expence. But the government, relying on the good sense and valour of a people, who must hate or disregard themselves before they can hate or disregard that which so manifestly promotes their own happiness, has no need to expend much on any species of warlike preparations. The government could not stand a week if it were hated by the people; nor, indeed, ought it to stand an hour. It has the hearts of the people with it, and therefore it need expend nothing in blood-money, or in secret services of any kind. Hence the cheapness of this government; hence the small amount of the taxes; hence the ease and happiness of the people.

VI. THE PROSPECTS OF VARIOUS CLASSES OF EMIGRANTS.

We have, in the preceding sections, endeavoured to give a general idea of the circumstances respecting which emigrants must feel the greatest anxiety; and will now proceed to detail the advantages and disadvantages that may attend different classes of emigrants, such as gentlemen, farmers, merchants and manufacturers, mechanics, labourers, artists, &c.

1. Gentlemen.

America is not the country of gentlemen. Perhaps another century will elapse before this class of society becomes numerous. Here every one is employed in some business, or in superintending some improvement. Yet as some, possessed

of a competent and secure States, we expect to enter into this subject.

Mr. Fear intends living cheaper than his choice of statement of six months, not appearing.

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of a competency, may in these eventful times wish to emigrate, and secure their property and their safety in the United States, we will here notice the advantages which they may expect to enjoy. As these are in a great measure proportioned to the expences of house-keeping, it will be necessary to enter into this subject more in detail.

Mr. Fearon recommends to the man of small property, who intends living upon the interest, and wants to remove to a cheaper country than England, to pause before the object of his choice be America. This writer has given the following statement of Mr. H——'s (an English emigrant) expences for six months, ending the 1st of March, 1818; but which does not appear to be very extravagant:—

'This family consists of thirteen: Mr. H——, Mrs. H——, three Misses H—— sixteen years of age and upwards, two ditto younger, four boys four to twelve years of age, one woman servant, one girl.

'They occupy the whole (store excepted) of an excellent house in Market-street, Philadelphia; in it there are 13 rooms, kitchen included, and three cellars. The rent is 500 dollars per annum. The following account is for the first six months of their residence in the United States. It includes rent, and what little clothes the females may have found necessary to purchase, in consequence of the difference of American fashions; also about 100 dollars for travelling expences. Their style of living is extremely plain, respectable, and economical.

1817.		Dollars.	Cents.
Sept. 1st to 8th.	One week's board and lodging at a boarding house	80	0
Sept. 8th.	Wood for firing	19	76
	Wine and spirits	9	50
	Other expences	199	6
	Wood (firing)	21	18
	Other expences	149	2
	Wood (firing)	39	39
	Shoes	25	50
	Other expences	221	36
	Schooling (for two boys)	15	65

	Dollars.	Cents.
Wine and spirits	15	0
Aurora newspaper	5	0
Schooling (eldest boy)	21	50
Wood (firing)	50	0
Ditto ditto	39	50
Other expences	388	37
Schooling (for two boys)	12	0
Total, 1st Sept. 1817, to March, 1818	1313	79

'This account does *not* include the expenditure for household furniture: they have paid for Scotch carpeting, yard wide, (commonest qualities) 170 cents per yard; stair carpeting, narrow, strong, and common, of domestic manufacture, 100 cents per yard; oil-cloth, yard wide, 175 cents per yard; Windsor chair, 216 cents each; fancy rush bottoms, light and genteel, 375 cents each.'

But the celebrated Cobbett enters into this subject with his usual precision and boldness; and which we will beg leave to offer in his own strong and impressive language.

'In the great cities and towns,' says he, 'house rent is very high-priced; but then nobody but mad people live there except they have business there, and then they are paid back their rent in the profits of that business. This is so plain a matter, that no argument is necessary. It is unnecessary to speak about the expences of a farm-house; because the farmer eats, and very frequently wears, his own produce. If these be high-priced, so is that part which he sells. Thus both ends meet with him.'

'I am, therefore, supposing the case of a man, who follows no business, and who lives upon what he has got. In England he cannot eat and drink and wear the interest of his money; for the borough-mongers have pawned half his income, and they will have it or his blood. He wishes to escape from this alternative. He wishes to keep his blood, and enjoy his money too. He would come to America; but he does not know whether prices here will not make up for the robbery of

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the borough-villains; and he wishes to know too what sort of society he is going into.

'The price of house-rent and fuel is, when at more than three miles from New York, as low as it is at the same distance from any great city or town in England. The price of wheaten bread is a third lower than it is in any part of England. The price of beef, mutton, lamb, veal, small pork, hog-meat, poultry, is one-half the London price; the first as good, the two next very nearly as good, and all the rest far, very far, better than in London. The sheep and lambs that I now kill for my house are as fat as any that I ever saw in all my life; and they have been running in wild ground, wholly uncultivated for many years, all the summer. A lamb, killed the week before last, weighing in the whole thirty-eight pounds, had five pounds of loose fat and three pounds and ten ounces of suet. We cut a pound of solid fat from each breast; and after that it was too fat to be pleasant to eat. My flock being small, or thereabouts, of some neighbours joined them; and they have all got fat together. I have missed the interlopers lately: I suppose the "Yorkers" have eaten them up by this time. What they have fattened on except brambles and cedars, I am sure I do not know. If any Englishman should be afraid that he will find no roast beef here, it may be sufficient to tell him, that an ox was killed, last winter, at Philadelphia, the quarters of which weighed *two thousand, two hundred, and some odd pounds*, and he was sold to THE BUTCHER for *one thousand three hundred dollars*. This is proof enough of the spirit of enterprise, and of the disposition in the public to encourage it. I believe this to have been the fattest ox that ever was killed in the world. Three times as much money, or perhaps ten times as much, might have been made if the ox had been shewn for money. But this the owner would not permit; and he sold the ox in that condition. I need hardly say that the owner was a quaker, New Jersey had the honour of producing this ox, and the owner's name was John Tyler.

'That there must be good bread in America is pretty evident from the well known fact, that hundreds of thousands of

barrels of flour are, most years sent to England, finer than any that England can produce. And having now provided the two principal articles, I will suppose, as a matter of course, that a gentleman will have a garden, an orchard, and a cow or two; but if he should be able (no easy matter) to find a genteel country-house without these conveniences, he may buy butter, cheaper, and upon an average better, than in England. The garden stuff, if he send to New York for it, he must buy pretty dear; and, faith, he ought to buy it dear, if he will not have some planted and preserved.

'Cheese, of the North river produce, I have bought as good of Mr. Stickler of New York as I ever tasted in all my life; and, indeed, no better cheese need be wished for than what is now made in this country. The average price is 7d. a pound (English money), which is much lower than even middling cheese is in England. Perhaps, generally speaking, the cheese here is not so good as the better kinds in England; but there is none here so poor as the poorest in England. Indeed the people would not eat it, which is the best security against its being made. Mind, I state distinctly, that as good cheese as I ever tasted, if not the best, was of American produce. I know the article well. Bread and cheese dinners have been the dinners of a good fourth of my life. I know the Cheshire, Gloucester, Wiltshire, Stilton, and the Parmesan; and I never tasted better than American cheese, bought of Mr. Stickler, in Broad-street, New York. And this cheese Mr. Stickler informs me is nothing uncommon in the county of Cheshire in Massachusetts; he knows at least a hundred persons himself that make it equally good. And indeed why should it not be thus in a country where the pasture is so rich; where the sun warms every thing into sweetness; where the cattle eat the grass close under the shade of the thickest trees, which we know they will not do in England. Take any fruit which has grown in the shade in England, and you will find that it has not half the sweetness in it that there is in fruit of the same bulk grown in the sun. But here the sun sends his heat down through all the boughs and leaves. The manufacturing of cheese is not yet generally brought, in this

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country, to the English perfection; but here are all the materials, and the rest will soon follow.

'Groceries, as they are called, are, upon an average, at far less than half the English price. Tea, sugar, coffee, spices, chocolate, cocoa, salt, sweet oil, all free of the borough-mongers' taxes and their pawn, are so cheap as to be within the reach of every one. Chocolate, which is a treat to the rich in England, is here used even by the negroes. Sweet oil, raisins, currants, all the things from the Levant, are at a fourth or fifth of the English price. The English people, who pay enormously to keep possession of the East and West Indies, purchase the produce even of the English possessions at a price double of that which the Americans give for that very produce! What a hellish oppression must that people live under! Candles and soap (quality for quality) are half the English price. Wax candles (beautiful) are at a third of the English price. It is no very great piece of extravagance to burn wax candles constantly here; and it is frequently done by genteel people who do not make their own candles.

'Fish I have not mentioned, because fish is not every where to be had in abundance. But any where near the coast it is; and it is so cheap, that one wonders how it can be brought to market for the money. Fine black-rock, as good, at least, as cod-fish, I have seen sold, and in cold weather too, at an English farthing a pound. They now bring us fine fish round the country to our doors, at an English three-pence a pound. I believe they count fifty or sixty sorts of fish in New York market as the average. Oysters, other shell-fish, called *clams*. In short, the variety and abundance are such that I cannot describe them.

'An idea of the state of plenty may be formed from these facts: nobody but the free negroes who have families ever think of eating a sheep's head and pluck. It is seldom that oxen's heads are used at home, or sold, and never in the country. In the course of the year, hundreds of calves' heads, large bits and whole joints of meat, are left on the shambles at New York, for any body to take away that will. They generally fall to the share of the street hogs, a thousand or two

of which are constantly sitting in New York on the meat and fish flung out of the houses. I shall be told, that it is only in hot weather that the shambles are left thus garnished. Very true; but are the shambles of any other country thus garnished in hot weather? Oh, no! If it were not for the superabundance, all the food would be sold at some price or other.

After bread, flesh, fish, fowl, butter, cheese, and groceries, comes fruit. Apples, pears, cherries, peaches, at a tenth part of the English price. The other day I met a man going to market with a waggon load of winter pears. He had high boards on the sides of the waggon, and his waggon held about 40 or 50 bushels. I have bought very good apples this year for four-pence halfpenny (English) a bushel, to boil for little pigs. Besides these, strawberries grow wild in abundance; but no one will take the trouble to get them. Huckleberries in the woods in great abundance, chestnuts all over the country. Four-pence halfpenny (English) a quart for these latter. Cranberries, the finest fruit for tarts that ever grew, are bought for about a dollar a bushel; and they will keep, flung down in the corner of a room, for five months in the year. As a sauce to venison or mutton, they are as good as currant jelly. Pine apples in abundance, for several months in the year, at an average of an English shilling each. Melons at an average of an English eight-pence. In short, what is there not in the way of fruit? All excellent of their kinds, and all for a mere trifle compared to what they cost in England.

I am afraid to speak of drink, lest I should be supposed to countenance the common use of it. But protesting most decidedly against this conclusion, I proceed to inform those who are not content with the cow for viatner and brewer, that all the materials for making people drunk, or muddle-headed, are much cheaper here than in England. Beer, good ale, I mean, a great deal better than the common public-house beer in England; in short, good, strong, clear ale is, at New York, eight dollars a barrel; that is, about fourteen English pence a gallon. Brew yourself, in the country, and it is about seven English pence a gallon; that is to say, less than two-pence a

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quart. No borough-mongers' tax on malt, hops, or beer. Portugal wine is about half the price that it is in England. French wine a sixth part of the English price. Brandy and rum about the same in proportion; and the common spirits of the country are about three shillings and six-pence (English) a gallon. Come on, then, if you love toying; for here you may drink yourselves blind at the price of six-pence.

Wearing apparel comes chiefly from England, and all the materials of dress are as cheap as they are there; for, though there is a duty laid on the importation, the absence of taxes, and the cheap food and drink, enable the retailer to sell as low here as there. Shoes are cheaper than in England; for, though shoe-makers are well paid for their labour, there is no borough-villain to tax the leather. All the India and French goods are at half the English price. Here no ruffian can seize you by the throat and tear off your suspected handkerchief. Here Signor Weithman, or any body in that line, might have sold French gloves and shawls without being tempted to quit the field of politics as a compromise with the government; and without any breach of covenants, after being suffered to escape with only a gentle squeeze.

Household furniture, all cheaper than in England. Mahogany timber a third part of the English price. The distance shorter to bring it, and the tax next to nothing on importation. The woods here, the pine, the ash, the white-oak, the walnut, the tulip-tree, and many others all excellent. The workman paid high wages, but no tax. No borough-villains to share in the amount of the price.

Horses, carriages, harness, all as good, as gay, and cheaper than in England. I hardly ever saw a *rip* in this country. The hackney coach horses and the coaches themselves, at New York, bear no resemblance to things of the same name in London. The former are all good, sound, clean, and handsome. What the latter are I need describe in no other way than to say, that the coaches seem fit for nothing but the fire and the horses for the dogs.

Domestic servants. This is a weighty article: not in the coat, however, so much as in the plague. A good man ser-

vant is worth thirty pounds sterling a year; and a good woman servant, twenty pounds sterling a year. But this is not all; for, in the first place, they will hire only by the month. This is what they, in fact, do in England; for there they can quit at a month's warning. The man will not wear livery, any more than he will wear a halter round his neck. This is no great matter; for as your neighbour's men are of the same taste, you expose yourself to no humiliation on this score. Neither men nor women will allow you to call them servants, and they will take especial care not to call themselves by that name. This seems something very capricious, at the least; and as people in such situations of life really are servants, according to even the sense which Moses gives to the word, when he forbids the working of the man servant and the maid servant, the objection, the rooted aversion, to the name, seems to bespeak a mixture of false pride and of insolence, neither of which belong to the American character; even in the lowest walks of life. I will, therefore, explain the cause of this dislike to the name of servant. When this country was first settled, there were no people that laboured for other people; but as man is always trying to throw the working part off his own shoulders, as we see by the conduct of priests in all ages, negroes were soon introduced. Englishmen, who had fled from tyranny at home, were naturally shy of calling other men their slaves; and therefore, "for more grace," as Master Matthew says in the play, they called their slaves servants. But though I doubt not that this device was quite efficient in quieting their own consciences, it gave rise to the notion, that slave and servant meant one and the same thing, a conclusion perfectly natural and directly deducible from the premises. Hence every free man and woman have rejected with just disdain the appellation of servant. One would think, however, that they might be reconciled to it by the conduct of some of their superiors in life, who, without the smallest apparent reluctance, call themselves "Public Servants," in imitation, I suppose, of English ministers, and his holiness the pope, who, in the excess of his humility, calls himself, "the Servant of the Servants of the Lord." But perhaps the American do-

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domestics have observed that "Public Servant" really means *master*. Be the cause what it may, however, they continue most obstinately to scout the name of servant; and though they still keep a civil tongue in their head, there is not one of them that will not resent the affront with more bitterness than any other that you could offer. The man, therefore, who would deliberately offer such an affront must be a fool. But there is an inconvenience far greater than this. People in general are so comfortably situated, that very few, and then only of those who are pushed hard, will become domestics to any body. So that, generally speaking, domestics of both sexes are far from good. They are honest; but they are not obedient. They are careless. Wanting frequently in the greater part of those qualities, which make their services conducive to the neatness of houses and comfort of families. What a difference would it make in this country, if it could be supplied with nice, clean, dutiful English maid servants! As to the men, it does not much signify; but for the want of the maids, nothing but the absence of grinding taxation can compensate. As to bringing them with you, it is as wild a project as it would be to try to carry the sun-beams to England. They will begin to change before the ship gets on soundings; and before they have been here a month, you must turn them out of doors, or they will you. If, by any chance, you find them here, it may do; but bring them out and keep them you cannot. The best way is to put on your philosophy; never to look at this evil without, at the same time, looking at the many good things that you find here. Make the best selection you can. Give good wages, not too much work, and resolve, at all events, to treat them with civility.

‘However, what is this plague compared with that of the tax gatherer? What is this plague compared with the constant sight of beggars and paupers, and the constant dread of becoming a pauper or beggar yourself? If your commands are not obeyed with such alacrity as in England, you have, at any rate, nobody to command you. You are not ordered to "stand and deliver" twenty or thirty times in the year by the insolent agent of borough-mongers. No one comes to forbid

you to open or shut up a window. No insolent set of commissioners send their order for you to dance attendance on them, to *show cause* why they should not double-tax you; and when you have shewn cause, even on your oath, make you pay the tax, laugh in your face, and leave you an *appeal* from themselves to another set, deriving their authority from the same source, and having a similar interest in oppressing you, and thus laying your property prostrate beneath the hoof of an insolent and remorseless tyranny. Free, wholly free, from this tantalizing, this grinding, this odious curse, what need you care about the petty plagues of domestic servants?

'However, as there are some men and some women, who can never be at heart's ease unless they have the power of domineering over somebody or other, and who will rather be slaves themselves than not have it in their power to treat others as slaves, it becomes a man of fortune, proposing to emigrate to America, to consider soberly whether he or his wife be of this taste; and if the result of his considerations be in the affirmative, his best way will be to continue to live under the borough-mongers, or, which I would rather recommend, hang himself at once.'

2. Farmers.

The next class of emigrants which we will notice comprises all those who may devote their attention to agriculture. Many Europeans, possessed of a small capital, commence farming upon their arrival in America, although they have been accustomed to some other employment, and consequently cannot be supposed to be very expert in their new occupation. If such experience much difficulty in the commencement, they ought to recollect that this would also, in some degree, be the case even in their own country.

The emigrant who goes to America with the intention of applying himself to farming, should take with him some seed wheat of the best kinds; and if he can procure it, perhaps the Syrian wheat (*Triticum compositum*) might be worth a trial. It has a much better chance of answering in America than in England, and particularly south of 40 degrees of latitude.

Also a small quantity of the seeds of the most hardy and preferable of hay seeds. These elements can be adapted to the soil. In determining the most suitable for the views are governed by the soil, the culture, the sugar, he will deg.; for corn, as further north the climate less ought not to risk against those who appear to him found, on farther if he cultivates their advice, his succession of crops what he has experienced modified climate change the order sowed. He will and that of his afterwards, if he the scythe; the corn. If the called wild land peach and apple alternate, say on the apple trees soon comes to market of little value by. In the woody element in the

Also a small quantity of lucerne, sainfoin, and vetches; either the seeds or the roots of the two former, but the roots would be preferable. It might also be advisable to take a small bag of hay seeds from some of the best meadows. Farming implements can be had in any part of the United States, well adapted to the different purposes for which they are wanted. In determining a situation, he has the choice of any climate, from latitude 29 to 44 degrees, comprehending the regions suitable for the culture of sugar, cotton, and grain. If his views are governed by the determination to adopt any particular culture, he will of course settle in the region suitable: if sugar, he will go south of 31½ deg.; if cotton, south of 36 deg.; for corn, the most agreeable is from 36 deg. to 41 deg., as further north the severity and length of the winters render the climate less desirable. A farmer, on settling in America, ought not rashly to set up his opinions or former practices against those of the old settlers. Many things, which may appear to him at first to be wrong or unnecessary, will be found, on farther experience, both right and expedient; but if he cultivates the good-will of his neighbours, and follows their advice, he will not go wrong. He will soon find the succession of crops and the mode of culture vary much from what he has experienced in England; and that a differently modified climate, and a sun more nearly vertical, greatly change the order of the things to which he has been accustomed. He will find his rye harvest to commence in June, and that of his wheat soon after; the oats follow next; and afterwards, if he have a meadow, his grass will be ready for the scythe: then come his potatoes, and lastly his Indian corn. If the emigrant purchases and settles upon what is called wild land, one of his first cares ought to be to plant a peach and apple orchard; and he ought to plant the two sorts alternate, say one peach betwixt two apple trees, and not plant the apple trees less than 30 feet asunder. The peach tree soon comes to maturity, and is short lived: they will become of little value by the time the apple trees are in want of room.

In the woody region, the axe is for some time the chief implement in the hands of the settler, and he feels a considerable

degree of repugnance at the destruction of so much fine timber; but this soon subsides. If he has courage to proceed as far west as the Illinois, the North-west territories, or to the west of the Mississippi, the prairies afford him the means of settling without much trouble.

In the early part of the settlement of the rich countries beyond the Alleghanies, agues were very prevalent; and it will perhaps be found, that all countries in a state of nature are liable to this disease in the proportion of their fertility, which has a tendency to produce it, from the vast quantity of vegetable matter which goes to decay in autumn. As this applies generally in those regions, the new settler has no means of avoiding the consequence, but by precautions and preventives; but as it has also a local influence, he may, by a judicious choice of a situation, render himself and family less liable to its attacks. As the first settlers have the choice of the whole country, it is very natural that they should adopt the alluvial of the rivers, both on account of the superior fertility of the soil, and the facilities it gives to the transportation of produce: and many, in so doing, sacrifice their health to their apparent interest. It must be admitted, that some of the valleys in which the rivers flow are as healthy as the uplands; but this depends on whether the river overflows its banks or not, or on the existence or non-existence of stagnant water in the neighbourhood. As to precautions, the emigrant is apprised that in these countries the dews are very copious, and begin to fall even before sunset. Let him avoid, as much as possible, exposure either to this or rain; or if unavoidably exposed, he must take off his wet clothes as soon as possible; and if he has flannel shirts, in order to change after copious perspiration, he will find benefit in them. An important consideration in this respect is the quality of the water used in his family: of course the purer this is the better. The settler cannot be expected to be capable of analysing it; but he may discover the presence of sulphur, iron, an acid, or an alkali, by tests always in his power to procure. Sulphur may be detected by laying a piece of bright silver in the water, which turns black if that substance is held in solution. A little of the inner bark of

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any of the oaks, infused in a glassful, turns the water black, if iron is present. Paper, stained blue by the petals of almost any flower of that colour being rubbed upon it, turns green by being dipped in water impregnated with alkali; or red, if an acid.

The settler who is accustomed to malt liquor may, with very little trouble, brew his own ale. Barley is cultivated west of the Alleghanies, and hops grow wild in abundance. The use of this beverage is supposed to be a preventive to the ague. Almost every family has a supposed cure for this complaint: and every one who visits or sees those affected has a favourite remedy, all differing from each other; but the physicians, in the Western country, treat it with bark and laudanum: of these the emigrant ought to lay in a sufficiency to administer to his family in case of need.

It has already been observed, that the emigrants to this country are almost of every nation in Europe; but it is a remarkable and striking fact, that the Germans, Dutch, and Swiss, succeed much better than those from any other country. This is not so much owing to greater industry or economy, as to the more judicious mode they adopt in settling. In general, before these people emigrate, they form associations, lay down their plans, and send an agent over in whom they can confide. He purchases for them a suitable extent of land, and prepares the way: when their arrangements are made, they move over in one body. This system has always been followed by these people, and the consequences are visible in almost every part of the United States; but more particularly in the states of New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, in all parts of which they are in possession of the best lands. The appearance of comfort, ease, and independence, exhibited by one of these little colonies, is so visible, that the traveller who does not perceive it at first sight must be very deficient in discernment. Some of the colonies of this kind, besides the tie of common interest, have another bond of union, which is a similarity of sentiment and belief in their religious opinions; this, in some instances, has operated as a cause for regulating their system of colonization: but perhaps that which has most

generally influenced them is the circumstance of their language not being the general language of the United States,—an inconvenience much less felt by a colony than by an isolated family. But let the cause be what it may, the effect is very manifest, and may be easily accounted for. In the early settlement of any particular district of *new country*, its progress in improvements is slow, until a grist and saw-mill are erected; after which the change is very rapid. Every planter in the vicinity, by the aid of the saw-mill, is able to erect a handsome frame-house. The grist-mill enables him to convert his wheat into flour fit for a market, and he boldly engages and employs hands to assist him in converting forest into fields, yielding luxuriant crops. These two kind of mills are the most necessary objects in a new colony: but there are many others, such as roads, bridges, &c. all of which are much sooner effected by a colony having an union of interest, and of course an union of action.

Mr. Birkbeck, in his letters from the Illinois, says, 'I am fully convinced, that those who are not screwed up to the full pitch of enterprise had better remain in Old England, than attempt agriculture, or business of any kind (manual operations excepted) in the Atlantic States. Emigrants from Europe are too apt to linger in the eastern cities, wasting their time, their money, and their resolution. They should push out westward without delay, where they can live cheaply until they fix themselves. Two dollars, saved in Pennsylvania, will purchase an acre of good land in the Illinois. The land carriage, from Philadelphia to Pittsburg, is from seven to ten dollars per cwt. (100 lb.) Clothing, razors, pocket-knives, pencils, mathematical instruments, and light articles in general, of constant usefulness, ought to be carried even at this expence; and books, which are scarce, and much wanted in the west. Good gun-locks are rare, and difficult to procure. No heavy implements will pay carriage. A pocket compass is indispensable for every stranger who ventures alone into the woods of America; and he should always carry the means of lighting a fire; for the traveller, when he starts in the morning on a wilderness journey, little knows where next he may lay his

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head. Tow rubbed with gunpowder is good tinder. A few biscuits, a phial of spirits, a tomahawk, and a good blanket, are necessary articles. Overtaken by night, or bewildered, if thus provided, you will be really comfortable by your blazing fire; when without them you would feel dismal and disconsolate. A dog is a pleasant and useful fellow-traveller in the back woods. You should make your fire with a fallen tree for a back log, and lie to leeward, with your feet towards it. The smoke flying over will preserve you from the damp air and mosquitoes. Tie your horse with a long rein to the end of a bough, or to the top of a young hickory tree, which will allow him to graze or browse; and change his position, if you awake in the night.

In a letter to a friend, this enterprising speculator says, 'Make an effort, and extricate yourself and family completely, by removing into this country. If you can honourably make your escape, with the means of transmitting yourself hither, and 100*l*. sterling to spare,—don't hesitate. In six months after I shall have welcomed you, barring accidents, you shall discover that you have become rich, for you shall feel that you are independent; and I think that will be the most delightful sensation you ever experienced; for you will receive it multiplied as it were by the number of your family, as your troubles now are. It is not, however, a sort of independence that will excuse you from labour, or afford you many luxuries, that is, costly luxuries. I will state to you what I have learnt, from a good deal of observation and inquiry, and a little experience; then you will form your own judgment. In the first place, the voyage—That will cost, to Baltimore or Philadelphia, provided you take it, as no doubt you would, in the cheapest way, twelve guineas each, for a birth, fire, and water, for yourself and wife, and half price or less for your children; besides provisions, which you will furnish. Then the journey—Over the mountains to Pittsburg, down the Ohio to Shawnee town, and from thence to our settlement, 50 miles north, will amount to five pounds sterling per head. If you arrive here as early as May, or even June, another five pounds per head will carry you on to that point, where you may take

your leave of dependence on any thing earthly but your own exertions. At this time I suppose you to have remaining one hundred pounds (borrowed probably from English friends, who rely on your integrity, and who may have directed the interest to be paid to me on their behalf, and the principal in due season. We will now, if you please, turn it into dollars, and consider how it may be disposed of. A hundred pounds sterling will go a great way in dollars. With 80 dollars you will "enter a quarter section of land;" that is, you will purchase at the land-office 160 acres, and pay one-fourth of the purchase money, looking to the land to reward your pains with the means of discharging the other three-fourths as they become due, in two, three, and four years. You will build a house with 50 dollars, and you will find it extremely comfortable and convenient, as it will be really and truly yours. Two horses will cost, with harness and plough, 100. Cows, and hogs, and seed corn, and fencing, with other expences, will require the remaining 210 dollars. This beginning, humble as it appears, is affluence and splendour compared with the original outfit of settlers in general. Yet no man remains in poverty, who possesses even moderate industry and economy, and especially of *time*. You would of course bring with you your sea-bedding and store of blankets, for you will need them on the Ohio; and you should leave England with a good stock of wearing apparel. Your luggage must be composed of light articles, on account of the costly land-carriage from the eastern port to Pittsburg, which will be from seven to ten dollars per 100 lb. nearly six-pence sterling per pound. A few simple medicines of good quality are indispensable, such as calomel, bark in powder, castor oil, calcined magnesia, and laudanum: they may be of the greatest importance on the voyage and journey, as well as after your arrival. Change of climate and situation will produce temporary indisposition; but with prompt and judicious treatment, which is happily of the most simple kind, the complaints to which new comers are liable are seldom dangerous or difficult to overcome.

In conformity to our foregoing remark, this writer remarks that emigrants with small capitals are liable to great inconve-

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nience, unless they have a particular situation provided for them by some precursor on whom they can depend. Money is powerful in this country in purchasing land, but weak in providing the means of living, except as to the bare necessities of life. Thus the travelling expences of emigrants are heavy, in addition to the waste of time in long peregrinations.

Mr. Cobbett says, "There are some, and even many, farmers, who do not work themselves in the fields. But they all attend to the thing, and are all equally civil to their working people. They manage their affairs very judiciously. Little talking. Orders plainly given in few words, and in a decided tone. This is their only secret."

"The cattle and implements used in husbandry are cheaper than in England; that is to say, lower priced. The wear and tear not nearly half so much as upon a farm in England of the same size. The climate, the soil, the gentleness and docility of the horses and oxen, the lightness of the waggons and carts, the lightness and toughness of the wood of which husbandry implements are made, the simplicity of the harness, and, above all, the ingenuity and handiness of the workmen in repairing and in making shift; all these make the implements a matter of very little note. Where horses are kept, the shoeing of them is the most serious kind of expence.

"The first business of a farmer is, here, and ought to be every where, to live well: to live in ease and plenty; to "keep hospitality," as the old English saying was. To save money is a secondary consideration; but any English farmer, who is a good farmer there, may, if he will bring his industry and care with him, and be care to leave his pride and insolence (if he have any) along with his anxiety, behind him, live in ease and plenty here, and keep hospitality, and save a great parcel of money too. If he have the jack-daw taste for heaping little round things together in a hole or chest, he may follow his taste. I have often thought of my good neighbour, John Gater, who, if he were here, with his pretty clipped hedges, his garden-looking fields, and his neat homesteads, would have visitors from far and near; and, while every one would admire and praise, no soul would envy him his posses-

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sions. Mr. Gater would soon have all these things. The hedges only want planting; and he would feel so comfortably to know that the Botley parson could never again poke his nose into his sheep-fold or his pig-stye. However, let me hope, rather, that the destruction of the borough-tyranny will soon make England a country fit for an honest and industrious man to live in. Let me hope that a relief from grinding taxation will soon relieve men of their fears of dying in poverty, and will thereby restore to England the "hospitality" for which she was once famed, but which now really exists no where but in America.'

Perhaps there are no modern publications that have made so deep an impression on the minds of British farmers than Birkbeck's 'Notes on a Journey in America,' and the 'Letters from the Illinois.' We have not made much use of the writings of this gentleman, because we think they are calculated to deceive and deprecate. 'You do indeed,' says a writer addressing Birkbeck, 'describe difficulties and hardships; but then you overcome them all with so much ease and gaiety, that you make them disregarded by your English readers, who, sitting by their fire-sides, and feeling nothing but the gripe of the borough-mongers and the tax-gatherer, merely cast a glance at your hardships and fully participate in all your enthusiasm. You do indeed fairly describe the rugged roads, the dirty hovels, the fire in the woods to sleep by, the pathless ways through the wildernesses, the dangerous crossings of the rivers; but there are the beautiful meadows and rich lands at last; there is the fine freehold domain at the end! There are the giants and the enchanters to encounter; the slashings and rib-roastings to undergo; but then there is at last the lovely languishing damsel to repay the adventurer.'

'The fact is,' says another writer on America, 'that by his (Birkbeck's) style and manner he has so captivated many of his readers (Americans excepted), that they begin to feel the conveniences and establishments of civilized life a source of misery, instead of an advantage. There is, moreover, something very imposing in the circumstance, that a man of his talents and property should be perfectly satisfied with the

change, notwithstanding he certainly has it done, I would very deeply in derations, why naturally look where even a inclined to ma he evidently turgusted with the pointment would humiliating situation—purchase final election—h profitable—would natives of his own and in informat should advance can only be effect and he having p ing, would not f the founder of a derations into our ary effect on the be supplied with the "Notes on a Mr. Cobbett h Birkbeck's account esteem for the wa the interests of B to the character of 'of advanced age, of settled acquaint not, to use Mr. G Of all such per farmers, English some of the tears, several months ag

change, notwithstanding all its attendant privations. This certainly has its weight, but having once taken the step he has done, I would merely suggest (without pretending to enter very deeply into the recesses of *the human mind*) a few considerations, why any man, under his circumstances, would naturally look with a very lenient eye upon all defects, and where even a mole-hill in the way of excellence existed, feel inclined to magnify it into a mountain. In leaving England he evidently turned his back upon it for ever. He was disgusted with the government, and hardly any extent of disappointment would probably induce him to place himself in the humiliating situation of returning. He has gone into the wilderness—purchased a large quantity of land—has made his final election—has reasonable hopes of the speculation proving profitable—would not be disappointed with having neighbours *natives of his own country*, and similar to himself in property and in information—must desire that the value of his lands should advance as largely and as rapidly as possible; which can only be effected by emigration being directed to that point, and he having no claim to the character of a superhuman being, would not feel his sense of importance lessened by being the founder of a large English colony. Taking these considerations into our calculation, and reflecting upon their *necessary* effect on the mind of any man so circumstanced, we may be supplied with an explanation of much that is contained in the “Notes on a Journey to Illinois.”

Mr. Cobbett has entered into an able examination of Mr. Birkbeck's account of *America*, which, notwithstanding his esteem for the writer, he thinks will prove both injurious to the interests of English farmers who are captivated by it, and to the character of the United States. ‘Persons,’ he observes, ‘of advanced age, of settled habits, of deep-rooted prejudices, of settled acquaintances, of contracted sphere of movement, do not, to use Mr. George Flower's expression, “transplant well.” Of all such persons farmers transplant worst; and of all farmers, English farmers are the worst to transplant. Of some of the *tears*, shed in the Illinois, an account reached me several months ago, through an eye-witness of perfect veracity,

and a very sincere friend of freedom and of you, and whose information was given me, unasked for, and in the presence of several Englishmen, every one of whom, as well as myself, most ardently wished you success.

'It is nothing, my dear sir, to say, as you do, in the preface to the "Letters from the Illinois," that, "as little would I encourage the emigration of the tribe of grumblers, people who are petulant and discontented under the every-day evils of life. Life has its petty miseries in all situations and climates, to be mitigated or cured by the continual efforts of an elastic spirit, or to be borne, if incurable, with cheerful patience. But the peevish emigrant is perpetually comparing the comforts he has quitted, but never could enjoy, with the privations of his new allotment. He overlooks the present good, and broods over the evil with habitual perverseness; whilst in the recollection of the past, he dwells on the good only. Such people are always bad associates, but they are an especial nuisance in an infant colony."

'Give me leave to say, my dear sir, that there is too much asperity in this language, considering who were the objects of the censure. Nor do you appear to me to afford, in this instance, a very happy illustration of the absence of that peevishness, which you perceive in others, and for the yielding to which you call them a nuisance; an appellation much too harsh for the object and for the occasion. If you, with all your elasticity of spirit, all your ardour of pursuit, all your compensations of fortune in prospect, and all your gratifications of fame in possession, cannot with patience hear the wailings of some of your neighbours, into what source are they to dip for the waters of content and good humour?

'It is no "every-day evil" that they have to bear. For an English farmer, and, more especially, an English farmer's wife, after crossing the sea and travelling to the Illinois, with the consciousness of having expended a third of their substance, to purchase, as yet, nothing but sufferings; for such persons to boil their pot in the gipsy fashion, to have a mere board to eat on, to drink whisky or pure water, to sit and sleep under a shed far inferior to their English cow-pens, to have a mill at

twenty miles distant, and a doctor no where to be had, "every-day evils" that they have to bear. You have your boot and shoes, you have it to your choice, if you fail of fortune to secure your neighbours' misfortune, hope, and comfort must be, for the certainty attending ought to be every day as happy

'It were much better for while they are suffering, they are, and, in my opinion,

'But leaving that, must emigrate. What culties? Come, they not stop in the have lived in amounting to thousand miles women and children not easily described of their journey shall show, with so well as they an English farmer giving about a sum in warm room those hardships comfort of an should they do to reason in an sons, all brought the hammer for

twenty miles distance, an apothecary's shop at a hundred, and a doctor no where; these, my dear sir, are not, to such people, "every-day evils of life." You, though in your little "cabin," have your books, you have your name circulating in the world, you have it to be given, by and by, to a city or a county; and if you fail of brilliant success, you have still a sufficiency of fortune to secure you a safe retreat. Almost the whole of your neighbours must be destitute of all these sources of comfort, hope, and consolation. As they now are, their change is, and must be, for the worse; and as to the future, besides the uncertainty attendant every where on that which is to come, they ought to be excused if they, at their age, despair of seeing days as happy as those that they have seen.

'It were much better for such people not to emigrate at all; for while they are sure to come into a state of some degree of suffering, they leave behind them the chance of happy days; and, in my opinion, the certainty of such days.

'But leaving this matter for the present, if English farmers must emigrate, why should they encounter unnecessary difficulties? Coming from a country like a garden, why should they not stop in another somewhat resembling that which they have lived in before? Why should they, at an expence amounting to a large part of what they possess, prowl two thousand miles at the hazard of their limbs and lives, take women and children through scenes of hardship and distress not easily described, and that too to live like gipsies at the end of their journey for at least a year or two, and, as I think I shall show, without the smallest chance of their finally doing so well as they may do in these Atlantic states? Why should an English farmer and his family, who have always been jogging about a snug homestead, eating regular meals, and sleeping in warm rooms, push back to the Illinois, and encounter those hardships which require all the habitual disregard of comfort of an American back-woodsman to overcome? Why should they do this? The undertaking is hardly reconcileable to reason in an Atlantic American farmer who has half a dozen sons, all brought up to use the axe, the saw, the chissel, and the hammer from their infancy, and every one of whom is

ploughman, carpenter, wheelwright, and butcher, and can work from sun-rise to sun-set, and sleep, if need be, upon the bare boards. What then must it be to an English farmer and his family of helpless mortals? Helpless, I mean, in this scene of such novelty and such difficulty. And what is his wife to do; she who has been torn from all her relations and neighbours, and from every thing that she liked in the world, and who perhaps has never, in all her life before, been ten miles from the cradle in which she was nursed? An American farmer mends his plough, his waggon, his tackle of all sorts, his household goods, his shoes: and, if used be, he makes them all. Can our people do all this, or any part of it? Can they live without bread for months? Can they live without beer? Can they be otherwise than miserable, cut off, as they are, from all intercourse with, and hope of hearing of, their relations and friends? The truth is, that this is not *transplanting*, it is *tearing up and flinging away*. Society! What society can these people have? 'Tis true they have nobody to envy, for nobody can have any thing to enjoy. But there may be, and there must be, mutual complainings, upbraidings; and every unhappiness will be traced directly to him who has been, however unintentionally, the cause of the unhappy person's removal. The very foundation of your plan necessarily contained the seeds of discontent and ill-will. A colony all from the same country was the very worst project that could have been fallen upon.

Mr. Cobbet then proceeds, in a strain of powerful irony, to ridicule Birkbeck's imaginary plans of happiness in the Illinois. 'In such a situation,' says he, 'with so many circumstances to annoy, what happiness can an English family enjoy in that country, so far distant from all that resembles what they have left behind them? "The fair enchantress, Liberty," of whom you speak with not too much rapture, they would have found in any of these states, and in a garb too by which they would have recognised her. Where they now are they are free indeed; but their freedom is that of the wild animals in your woods. It is not *freedom*, it is *no government*. The gipsies in England are free; and any one, who has a mind to live in

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a cave or cabin in some hidden recess of our Hampshire forests, may be free too. The English farmer in the Illinois is indeed beyond the reach of the borough-mongers; and so is the man that is in the grave. When it was first proposed, in the English ministry, to drop quietly the title of King of France in the enumeration of our king's titles, and when it was stated to be an expedient likely to tend to a peace, Mr. Windham, who was then a member of the cabinet, said, "As this is a measure of safety, and as, doubtless, we shall hear of others of the same cast, what think you of going under ground at once?" It was a remark enough to cut the liver out of the hearers; but Pitt and his associates had no livers. I do not believe that any twelve journeymen or labourers in England would have voted for the adoption of this mean and despicable measure.

If, indeed, the Illinois were the only place out of the reach of the borough-grasp; and if men are resolved to get out of that reach; then I should say, Go to the Illinois by all means. But as there is a country, a settled country, a free country, full of kind neighbours, full of all that is good, and when this country is to be traversed in order to get at the acknowledged hardships of the Illinois, how can a sane mind lead an English farmer into the expedition?

It is the enchanting dæmsel that makes the knight encounter the hair-breadth escapes, the sleeping on the ground, the cooking with cross-sticks to hang the pot on. It is the *prairie*, that pretty French word, which means green grass bespangled with daisies and cowslips! Oh, God! what delusion! And that a man of sense; a man of superior understanding and talent; a man of honesty, honour, humanity, and lofty sentiment, should be the cause of this delusion! I, my dear sir, have seen prairies many years ago, in America, as fine as yours, as fertile as yours, though not so extensive. I saw those prairies settled on by American loyalists, who were carried, with all their goods and tools, to the spot, and who were furnished with four years' provisions, all at the expence of England; and who had the lands given them, tools given them, and who were thus seated down on the borders of creeks, which gave them easy communication with the inhabited plains

near the sea. The settlers that I particularly knew were Connecticut men. Men with families of sons. Men able to do as much in a day, at the works necessary in their situation, as so many Englishmen would be able to do in a week. They began with a shed; then rose to a log house; and next to a frame house; all of their own building. I have seen them manure their land with *salmon* caught in their creeks, and with *pigeons* caught on the land itself. It will be a long while before you will see such beautiful corn-fields as I saw there. Yet nothing but the danger and disgrace which attended their return to Connecticut prevented their returning, though there they must have begun the world anew. I saw them in their log huts, and saw them in their frame houses. They had overcome all their difficulties as settlers; they were under a government which required neither tax nor service from them; they were as happy as people could be as to ease and plenty; but still they sighed for Connecticut; and especially the women, young as well as old, though we, gay fellows with worsted or silver lace upon our bright red coats, did our best to make them happy by telling them entertaining stories about Old England, while we drank their coffee and grog by gallons, and eat their fowls, pigs, and sausages, and sweetmeats by wheelbarrow loads; for though we were by no means shy, their hospitality far exceeded our appetites. I am an old hand at the work of settling in wilds. I have, more than once or twice, had to begin my nest and go in, like a bird, making it habitable by degrees; and if I, or if such people as my old friends above mentioned, with every thing found for them and brought to the spot, had difficulties to undergo, and sighed for home even after all the difficulties were over, what must be the lot of an English farmer's family in the Illinois?

This experienced writer next gives his own ideas on the mode of settling proper for an English farmer. 'All this,' he says, 'I told you, my dear sir, in London just before your departure. I begged of you and Mr. Richard Flower both, not to think of the wildernesses. I begged of you to go to within a day's ride of some of these great cities, where your ample capital and your great skill could not fail to place you

upon a footing happy and easy. You would find every thing to introduce, and every thing to acquire. What prospects, as that would find neither rous and hospitable pressed down rough-villains. sent you) to me no letter. Go Montgomery or else, that you them; and I'll neighbours as England."

'At this very would have had acres. Fine stone house overflowing chose, elegance public and private with England you now have a

'You say that "ern countries" of the Atlantic your saying that regard it only a farmer has sheep land, and the Mr. Harline in near Boston, the of two thousand much finer than 1814. Mr. Jud years an average

upon a footing, at least, with the richest amongst the most happy and enlightened yeomanry in the world; where you would find every one to praise the improvements you would introduce, and nobody to envy you any thing that you might acquire. Where you would find society as good, in all respects, as that which you had left behind you. Where you would find neighbours ready prepared for you far more generous and hospitable than those in England can be, loaded and pressed down as they are by the inexorable hand of the borough-villains. I offered you a letter (which, I believe, I sent you) to my friends the Pauls. "But," said I "you want no letter. Go into Philadelphia, or Bucks, or Chester, or Montgomery county; tell any of the quakers, or any body else, that you are an English farmer, come to settle amongst them; and I'll engage that you will instantly have friends and neighbours as good and as cordial as those that you leave in England."

'At this very moment, if this plan had been pursued, you would have had a beautiful farm of two or three hundred acres. Fine stock upon it feeding on Swedish turnips. A house overflowing with abundance; comfort, ease, and, if you chose, elegance, would have been your inmates; libraries, public and private, within your reach; and a communication with England much more quick and regular than that which you now have even with Pittsburg.

'You say that "Philadelphians know nothing of the Western countries" Suffer me then to say, that you know nothing of the Atlantic states, which indeed is the only apology for your saying that the Americans have no mutton fit to eat, and regard it only as a thing fit for dogs. In this island every farmer has sheep. I kill fatter lamb than I ever saw in England, and the fattest mutton I saw, I saw in company with Mr. Harline in Philadelphia market last winter. At Brighton, near Boston, they produced, at a cattle show this fall, an ox of *two thousand seven hundred pounds* weight, and sheep much finer than you and I saw at the Smithfield show in 1814. Mr. Judge Lawrence, of this county, kept for seven years an average of five hundred Merinos on his farm of one

hundred and fifty acres, besides raising twenty acres of corn and his usual pretty large proportion of grain! Can your Western farmers beat that? Yes, in extent, as the surface of five dollars beats that of a guinea.

'I suppose that Mr. Judge Lawrence's farm, close by the side of a bay that gives him two hours of water carriage to New York; a farm with twenty acres of meadow, real prairie; a gentleman's house and garden; barns, sheds, cider-house, stables, coach-house, corn-cribs, and orchards that may produce from four to eight thousand bushels of apples and pears; I suppose that this farm is worth three hundred dollars an acre; that is, forty-five thousand dollars, or about twelve or thirteen thousand pounds.

'Now then let us take a look at your estimate of the expenses of *sitting down* in the prairies.

'Copy from my Memorandum Book.

'Estimate of money required for the comfortable establishment of my family on Bolting house, now English prairie; on which the first instalment is paid. About 720 acres of woodland, and 720 prairie—the latter to be chiefly grass:—

	Dollars.
Second instalment, August, 1819, 720 dollars; Third, August, 1820, 720 dollars; Fourth, August, 1821, 720 dollars	2160
Dwelling-house and appurtenances	4500
Other buildings	1600
4680 rods of fencing, viz. 3400 on the prairie, and 1280 round the woodland	1170
Sundry wells, 200 dollars; gates, 100 dollars; cabins, 200 dollars	500
100 head of cattle, 900 dollars; 20 sows, &c. 100 dollars; sheep, 1000 dollars	2000
Ploughs, waggons, &c. and sundry tools and implements	270
Housekeeping until the land supplies us	1000
Shepherd one year's wages, herdsman one year, and sundry other labourers	1000
One cabinet maker, one wheelwright, one year, making furniture and implements, 300 dollars each	600

Sundry articles of
Sundries, fruit tr
First instalment
Five horses on h
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clothing, &c.
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Allow about 600

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	Dollars
Sundry articles of furniture, iron-mongery, pottery, glass, &c.	500
Sundries, fruit trees, &c.	100
First instalment already paid	720
Five horses on hand worth	300
Expence of freight and carriage of linen, bedding, books, clothing, &c.	1000
Value of articles brought from England	4500
Voyage and journey	2000
	25,820
	L5359 sterling.
Allow about 600 dollars more for corn and seed	141
	L5500

'So here is more than one-third of the amount of Mr. Judge Lawrence's farm. To be sure, there are only about 18,000 dollars expended on land, buildings, and getting at them; but what a life is that which you are to lead for a thousand dollars a year, when two good domestic servants will cost four hundred of the money? Will you live like one of the yeomen of your rank here? Then, I assure you, that your domestics and groceries (the latter three times as dear as they are here) and crockery-ware (equally dear) will more than swallow up that pitiful sum. You allow six thousand dollars for buildings. Twice the sum would not put you, in this respect, upon a footing with Mr. Lawrence. His land is all completely fenced; and his grain in the ground. His apple trees have six thousand bushels of apples in their buds, ready to come out in the spring; and a large part of these to be sold at a high price to go on ship-board. But what is to give you his market? What is to make your pork, as soon as killed, sell for nine or ten dollars a hundred; and your cows at 45 or 50 dollars each, and your beef at seven or eight dollars a hundred, and your corn at a dollar and wheat at two dollars a bushel?

'However, happiness is in the mind; and if it be necessary for the gratification of your mind to inhabit a wilderness, and be the owner of a large tract of land, you are right to seek

and enjoy this gratification. But for the plain, plodding English farmer, who simply seeks safety for his little property; with some addition to it for his children; for such a person to cross the Atlantic states in search of safety, tranquillity, and gain in the Illinois, is, to my mind, little short of madness. Yet to this mad enterprise is he allured by your captivating statements, and which statements become decisive in their effects upon his mind, when they are reduced to figures. This, my dear sir, is the part of your writings which has given me most pain. You have not meant to deceive; but you have first practised a deceit upon yourself, and then upon others. All the disadvantages you state; but then you accompany the statement by telling us how quickly and how easily they will be overcome. Salt, Mr. Hulme finds, even at Zanesville, at two dollars and a half a bushel; but you tell us that it will soon be at a quarter of a dollar. And thus it goes all through.

'I am happy, however, that you have given us figures in your account of what an English farmer may do with two thousand pounds. It is alluring, it is fallacious, it tends to disappointment, misery, ruin, and broken hearts; but it is open and honest in intention, and it affords us the means of detecting and exposing the fallacy. Many and many a family have returned to New England after having emigrated to the west in search of fine estates. They, able workmen, exemplary livers, have returned to labour in their native states, amongst their relations and old neighbours; but what are our poor ruined countrymen to do when they become penniless? If I could root my country from my heart, common humanity would urge me to make an humble attempt to dissipate the charming delusions, which have, without your perceiving it, gone forth from your sprightly and able pen, and which delusions are the more dangerous on account of your justly high and well-known character for understanding and integrity.

'The statement to which I allude stands as follows, in your tenth Letter from the Illinois.

'A capital of 2000*l*. sterling, (8889 dollars,) may be invested on a section of such land, in the following manner, viz.

Purchase of the
House and build-
able, may be
A rail fence round
About 1800 rods
into 10 fields,
Planting 1800 rods
Fruit trees for
Horses and other
Implements and
Provision for one
Sundry articles of
brought from
Carriage of ditto,
Voyage and travel

Note.—The first
960 dollars of the
the expences of cul-

Breaking up 100
Indian corn for seed
Planting ditto
Horse-hoeing ditto
Harvesting ditto,
Ploughing the same
Seed wheat, sowing
Incidental expence

100 acres of Indian
at 2 dollars per b

Breaking up 100
that crop
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UNITED STATES.

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	Dollar.
Purchase of the land, 640 acres, at 2 dollars per acre	1280
House and buildings, exceedingly convenient and comfortable, may be built for	1500
A rail fence round the woods, 1000 rods, at 25 cents per rod	250
About 1800 rods of ditch and bank, to divide the arable into 10 fields, at 33 $\frac{1}{3}$	600
Planting 1800 rods of live fence	150
Fruit trees for orchard, &c.	100
Horses and other live stock	1500
Implements and furniture	1000
Provision for one year, and sundry incidental charges	1000
Sundry articles of linen, books, apparel, implements, &c. brought from England	1000
Carriage of ditto, suppose 2000 lbs. at 10 dollars per cwt.	200
Voyage and travelling expences of one person, suppose	309
	8889

Note.—The first instalment on the land is 320 dollars, therefore 960 dollars of the purchase money remain in hand, to be applied to the expences of cultivation, in addition to the sums above stated.

Expenditure of first Year.

Breaking up 100 acres, 2 dollars per acre	200
Indian corn for seed, 5 barrels (a barrel is five bushels)	10
Planting ditto	25
Horse-hoeing ditto, one dollar per acre	100
Harvesting ditto, 1 $\frac{1}{4}$ dollar per acre	150
Ploughing the same land for wheat, 1 dollar per acre	100
Seed wheat, sowing, and harrowing	175
Incidental expences	240
	1000

Produce of first Year.

100 acres of Indian corn, 50 bushels (or 10 barrels) per acre, at 2 dollars per barrel	2000
Net produce	1000

Expenditure of second year.

Breaking up 100 acres for Indian corn, with expences on that crop	485
Harvesting and threshing wheat, 100 acres	350

	Dollars
Ploughing 100 acres for wheat, seed, &c.	275
Incidents	290
	1400

Produce of second year.

100 acres Indian corn, 10 barrels per acre, 2 dollars per barrel	2000
100 acres wheat, 20 bushels per acre, 75 dollars per barrel	1500
	3500
Net produce	2100

Expenditure of third year.

Breaking up 100 acres as before, with expences on crop of Indian corn	485
Ploughing 100 acres wheat stubble for Indian corn	100
Horse-hoeing, harvesting, &c. ditto	285
Harvesting and threshing 100 acres wheat	350
Dung-carting 100 acres for wheat, after second crop of Indian corn	900
Ploughing 200 acres wheat, seed, &c.	550
Incidents	330
	2300

Produce of third year.

200 acres Indian corn, 10 barrels per acre, 2 dollars per barrel	4000
100 acres wheat, 20 bushels per acre, 75 dollars per barrel	1500
	5500
Net produce	3200

Expenditure of fourth year.

As the third	2300
Harvesting and threshing 100 acres more wheat	350
Additional incidents	50
	2700

Produce of fourth year.

200 acres Indian corn, as above	4000
200 acres wheat	3000
	7000
Net produce	4300

First year

Second

Third

Fourth

Housekeeping

four years

Net proceeds

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Summary.

	Expences.	Produce.
	Dollars.	Dollars.
First year	1000	2000
Second	1400	3500
Third	2300	5500
Fourth	2700	7000
Housekeeping and other expences for		18,000
four years	4000	11,400
Net proceeds per annum		1650
Increasing value of land by cultivation and settlements, half a dollar per annum on 640 acres		320
	Annual clear profit	1970

"Twenty more: kill 'em! Twenty more: kill them too!"

No: I will not compare you to Bobadil; for he was an intentional deceiver; and you are unintentionally deceiving others and yourself too. But really there is in this statement something so extravagant, so perfectly wild, so ridiculously and staringly untrue, that it is not without a great deal of difficulty that all my respect for you personally can subdue in me the temptation to treat it with the contempt due to its intrinsic demerits.

"I shall notice only a few of the items. A house, you say, "exceedingly convenient and comfortable, together with farm buildings, may be built for 1500 dollars." Your own intended house you estimate at 4500, and your out-buildings at 1500. So that if this house of the farmer (an English farmer, mind) and his buildings are to be "exceedingly convenient and comfortable" for 1500 dollars, your house and buildings must be on a scale, which, if not perfectly princely, must savour a good deal of aristocratical distinction. But this *if* relieves us; for even your house, built of pine timber and boards, and covered with cedar shingles, and finished only as a good plain farm-house ought to be, will, if it be thirty-six feet front, thirty-four feet deep, two rooms in front, kitchen and wash-house behind, four rooms above, and a cellar be-

neath; yes, this house alone, the bare empty house, with doors and windows suitable, will cost you more than six thousand dollars. I state this upon good authority. I have taken the estimate of a building carpenter. "What carpenter?" you will say. Why, a Long Island carpenter, and the house to be built within a mile of Brooklyn, or two miles of New York. And this is giving you all the advantage, for here the pine is cheaper than with you; the shingles cheaper; the lime and stone and brick as cheap or cheaper; the glass, iron, lead, brass, and tin, all at half or a quarter of the prairie price; and as to labour, if it be not cheaper here than with you, men would do well not to go so far in search of high wages!

'Let no simple Englishman imagine that here, at and near New York, in this *dear place*, we have to pay for the boards and timber brought from a distance; and that you, the happy people of the land of daisies and of cowslips, can cut down your own good and noble oak trees upon the spot, on your own estates, and turn them into houses without any carting. Let no simple Englishman believe such idle stories as this. To dissipate all such notions, I have only to tell him, that the American farmers on this island, when they have buildings to make or repair, go and purchase the pine timber and boards, at the very same time that they cut down their own oak trees, and cleave up and burn them as fire-wood! This is the universal practice in all the parts of America that I have ever seen. What is the cause? Pine wood is cheaper, though brought, than the oak is without buying. This fact, which nobody can deny, is a complete proof that you gain no advantage from being in woods, as far as building is concerned. And the truth is, that the boards and plank, which have been used in the prairie, have actually been brought from the Wabash, charged with ten miles rough land carriage: how far they may have come down the Wabash I cannot tell.

'Thus then the question is settled, that building must be cheaper here than in the Illinois. If, therefore, a house, 36 by 34 feet, cost here 6000 dollars, what can a man get there for 1500 dollars? A miserable hole, and no more. But here

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are to be farm buildings and all in the 1500 dollars' worth! A barn, 40 feet by 30, with floor, and with stables in the sides, cannot be built for 1500 dollars; leaving out waggon-house, corn-crib, cattle-hovels, yard fences, pig-sties, smoke house, and a great deal more! And yet you say that all these, and a farm-house into the bargain, all "exceedingly comfortable and convenient," may be had for 1500 dollars!

'Now you know, my dear sir, that this is said in the face of all America. Farmers are my readers. They all understand these matters. They are not only good, but impartial judges; and I call upon you to contradict, or even question, my statements, if you can.

'Do my eyes deceive me? Or do I really see one hundred and fifty dollars put down as the expence of "planting one thousand eight hundred rod of live fence?" That is to say, three-quarters of a cent, or three-quarters of an English half-penny a rod! The "enchantress, Liberty," must have had you wholly to herself here; or rather she must have taken the pen out of your hand, and written this item herself; for so great a liberty with truth never was taken by any mortal being. What plants? Whence to come? Drawn out of the woods, or first sown in a nursery? Is it seed to be sown? Where are the seeds to come from? No levelling of the top of the bank; no drill; no sowing; no keeping clean for a year or two: or all these for three-quarters of a cent a rod, when the same works cost half a dollar a rod in England! Oh, monstrous tale! To dwell upon such a story is to insult the good sense of the reader. My real opinion is, that you will never have any thing worthy of the name of a live fence in the prairies; and that the idea only makes part of a delusive dream. No labourer in America will look at a rod of your banks for three-quarters of a cent.

'Manure, too! And do you really want manure then? And where, I pray, are you to get manure for 100 acres? But supposing you to have it, do you seriously mean to tell us that you will carry it on for two dollars an acre? The carrying on, indeed, might perhaps be done for that; but who pays for the filling and for the spreading? Ah, my dear sir! I

can well imagine your feelings at putting down the item of dung-carting, trifling as you make it appear upon paper. You now recollect my words when I last had the pleasure of seeing you, in Catherine-street, a few days before the departure of us both. I then dreaded the dung-cart, and recommended the Tullian system to you, by which you would have the same crops every year without manure; but, unfortunately for my advice, you sincerely believed your land would be already too rich, and that your main difficulty would be, not to cart on manure, but to cart off the produce!

Having thus cut up the Transalleghanian romance, he proceeds to notice an item or two of the produce. 'The farmer,' says he, 'is to have 100 acres of Indian corn the first year. The minds of you gentlemen who cross the Alleghany seem to expand, as it were, to correspond with the extent of the horizon that opens to your view; but I can assure you, that if you were to talk to a farmer on this side of the mountains of a field of corn of a hundred acres during the first year of a settlement, with grassy land and hands scarce, you would frighten him into a third-day ague. In goes your corn, however! "Twenty more: kill 'em!" Nothing but ploughing: no harrowing: no marking: and only a horse-hoeing, during the summer, at a dollar an acre. The planting is to cost only a quarter of a dollar an acre. The planting will cost a dollar an acre. The horse-hoeing in your grassy land, two dollars. The hand-hoeing, which must be well done, or you will have no corn, two dollars; for in spite of your teeth, your rampant natural grass will be up before your corn, and a man must go to a thousand hills to do half an acre a day. It will cost two dollars to harvest a hundred bushels of corn ears. So that here are about 400 dollars of expences on the corn alone to be added. A trifle, to be sure, when we are looking through the Transalleghanian glass, which diminishes out-goings and magnifies in-comings. However, here are 400 dollars.

'In goes the plough for what? "In him again! Twenty more!" But this is in October, mind. Is the corn off? It may be; but where are the four hundred waggon loads of corn stalks? A prodigiously fine thing is this forest of fod-

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der, as high and as thick as an English coppice. But though it be of no use to you, who have the meadows without bounds, this coppice must be removed, if you please, before you plough for wheat!

‘Let us pause here then; let us look at the battalion who are at work; for there must be little short of a Hessian battalion. Twenty men and twenty horses *may* husk the corn, cut and cart the stalks, plough and sow and harrow for the wheat; twenty two-legged and twenty four-legged animals *may* do the work in the proper time; but, if they do it, they must work well. Here is a goodly group to look at, for an English farmer, without a penny in his pocket; for all his money is gone long ago, even according to your own estimate; and here, besides the expence of cattle and tackle, are 600 dollars, in bare wages, to be paid in a month! You and I both have forgotten the shelling of the corn, which, and putting it up, will come to 50 dollars more at the least, leaving the price of the barrel to be paid for by the purchaser of the corn.

‘But what did I say? Shell the corn? It must go into the cribs first. It cannot be shelled immediately. And it must not be thrown into heaps. It must be put into cribs. I have had made out an estimate of the expence of the cribs for ten thousand bushels of corn ears: that is the crop; and the cribs will cost 570 dollars! Though, mind, the farmer’s house, barns, stables, waggon-house, and all, are to cost but 1500 dollars! But the third year our poor simpleton is to have 200 acres of corn! “Twenty more: kill ’em!” Another 570 dollars for cribs!

‘However, crops now come tumbling on him so fast, that he must struggle hard not to be stifled with his own superabundance. He has now got 200 acres of corn and 100 acres of wheat, which latter he has indeed had one year before! Oh, madness! But to proceed. The hands to get in these crops and to sow the wheat, first taking away 200 acres of English coppices in stalks, will, with the dunging for the wheat, require, at least, fifty good men, and forty good horses or oxen, for thirty days. Faith! when farmer Simpleton sees all this (in his dreams I mean), he will think himself a farmer

of the rank of Job, before Satan beset that example of patience, so worthy of imitation and so seldom imitated.

‘Well, but Simpleton must bustle to get in his wheat. In, indeed! What can cover it but the canopy of heaven? A barn! It will, at two English waggon loads of sheaves to an acre, require a barn a hundred feet long, fifty feet wide, and twenty-three feet high up to the eaves; and this barn, with two proper floors, will cost more than seven thousand dollars. He will put it in stacks; let him add six men to his battalion then. He will thrash it in the field; let him add ten more men! Let him, at once, send and press the Harmonites into his service, and make Rapp march at their head; for never will he by any other means get in the crop; and even then, if he pay fair wages, he will lose by it.

‘After the crop is in and the seed sown, in the fall, what is to become of Simpleton’s men till corn ploughing and planting time in the spring? And then when the planting is done, what is to become of them till harvest time? Is he, like Bayes in the Rehearsal, to lay them down when he pleases, and when he pleases make them rise up again? To hear you talk about these crops, and at other times to hear you advising others to bring labourers from England, one would think you, for your own part, able, like Cadmus, to make men start up out of the earth. How would one ever have thought it possible for infatuation like this to seize hold of a mind like yours?

‘When I read, in your Illinois Letters, that you had prepared horses, ploughs, and other things, for putting in a hundred acres of corn in the spring, how I pitied you! I saw all your plagues, if you could not see them. I saw the grass choking your plants; the grubs eating them; and you turning from the sight with all the pangs of sanguine baffled hope. I expected you to have ten bushels, instead of fifty, upon an acre. I saw your confusion, and participated in your mortification. From these feelings I was happily relieved by the Journal of our friend Hulme, who informs the world, and our countrymen in particular, that you had not, in July last, any corn at all growing

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Thus it is to reckon one's chickens before they are hatched : and thus the Transallegbanian dream vanishes. You have been deceived. A warm heart, a lively imagination, and I know not what caprice about republicanism, have led you into sanguine expectations and wrong conclusions. Come, now, confess it like yourself ; that is, like a man of sense and spirit ; like an honest and fair-dealing John Bull. To err belongs to all men, great as well as little ; but to be ashamed to confess error belongs only to the latter.'

8. *Merchants and Manufacturers.*

There is not now any great scope for mercantile speculations ; though those who possess a large capital, and could become importers, might succeed ; particularly those who understand the principles of business.

The manufacturers in America have long struggled against numerous difficulties, in consequence of the government feeling averse from granting high prohibitory duties, which would operate to cause an injurious re-action upon the trade of the country.

The general arguments against manufactures are, that their encouragement will enhance the price of clothing : that this will operate as a heavy tax upon the whole community, for the benefit of but a few : that the revenue of the United States would be materially injured, as its chief supply is from duties on imports : that in an extensive country, with but a scanty population, it is most beneficial to direct the mass of labour to the clearing of new lands, and other agricultural pursuits : that by so doing they will make greater and more rapid advances in extent of population and amount of national wealth, than by drawing off a part of their capital and labour, and devoting it to purposes of manufacture ; more especially while most of the articles wanted can be imported from England 30 to 50 per cent. cheaper than it is possible for them to be produced within the Union : that as labour is so high and land so cheap, there is an ever-existing inducement for men to leave factories, and free themselves from masters, to become lords of their own domain : and that this has been uniformly found to

be the case,—the slow advance of manufactures, and the consequent high price of the articles, having been a natural result of the situation of the country: that, in a word, it is the true interest of America to continue supplying Europe with raw material and with agricultural produce, both of which find there a certain market, while labour is from 25 to 50 per cent. higher than in England, and from 50 to 75 more than on the European continent.

On the manufacturers' side of this truly great national question is Mr. De Witt Clinton, governor of New York: in a speech which has had few equals in comprehensive and philosophic views, addressed to the legislature, he makes the following able reflections:

'The excessive importation of foreign fabrics was the signal of ruin to institutions founded by enterprising industry, reared by beneficial skill, and identified with the general welfare. The raw materials of iron, woollen, and cotton manufactures are abundant, and those for the minor and auxiliary ones, can, in most cases, be procured at home with equal facility. Nothing is wanting to destroy foreign competition but the steady protection of the government, and the public spirit of the country. High duties, and prohibiting provisions applied to foreign productions, afford the most efficient encouragement to our manufactures: and these measures appertain to the legitimate functions of the national government. But much may be done by the state government, by liberal accommodations, by judicious exemptions, and by the whole weight of its influence; and much more may be accomplished by the spirit of the community. For I am persuaded, that if every citizen who adopts the fabrics of other nations, would seriously consider that he is not only paying taxes for the support of foreign governments, but that he participates in undermining one of the main pillars of our productive industry, he would imitate the honourable practice which you have this day evinced in favour of American manufactures.'

Upon the whole, it seems that it is not now the interest of the United States, artificially to encourage the growth of manufactures, by granting them peculiar advantages. It appears

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at any rate certain, that in the present state of things, none could engage in the cotton or woollen establishments without a certainty of loss.

'In a great many trades or professions,' says the writer of the *Emigrant's Guide*, 'the emigrant who has a capital, and a trade or profession, may not meet with much difficulty, if he act with caution. Much in this case depends on making a judicious choice in determining where to establish his business. In most trades, the country beyond the Alleghany mountains, say Ohio, Kentucky, or Tennessee, hold out greater advantages than the rest of the Union; the profits in business being greater, and the expence of living much less: the climate also is more suitable to European constitutions, as the extreme betwixt the heat of summer and cold of winter is much less than in the Atlantic states. In some trades he may be expected to keep journeymen, perhaps Americans; from whom he is advised not to exact that servility of deportment expected from subordinates in other countries. He may be faithfully served without it. He loses nothing by this, as those who are his employers or customers will make no such exactions from him.'

4. *Mechanics.*

On landing, the emigrant who is too poor to enter into business himself must of course seek employment. 'The commodity he has to dispose of,' says the above-mentioned writer, 'is *labour*, for which he wants a market. So much of this is daily brought into the sea-ports, by the arrival of emigrants, that they are always over-stocked; he must look for a better chance:—this chance the country will afford him. If his trade or profession be such as is followed in a city, he may remain two days before he goes into the country; if unsuccessful in his enquiries for work, he ought not to remain longer. During his stay, he ought to enquire amongst those of his own profession, where he may hope to obtain employment; it is very likely they may furnish references which will be very useful to him. In travelling, this man ought not to be sparing in his enquiries; he is not in the least danger of receiving a rude or an uncivil answer, even if he should address himself



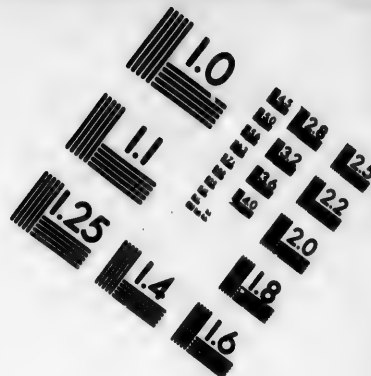
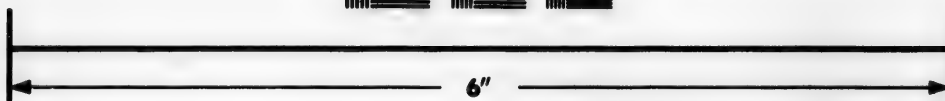
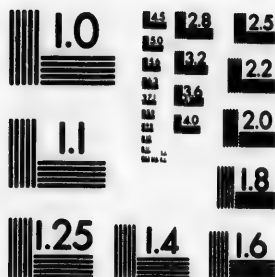


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to a *squire* (so justices are called). It is expected, in America, that every man shall attend to his own concerns; and if a man who is out of work asks for employment, it is considered as a very natural thing.

‘He ought to make his situation and profession known at the taverns where he stops, and rather to court than to shun conversation with any that he may find assembled there. He will seldom or never meet with a repulse, as it gives them an opportunity of making inquiries respecting the “*old country*,” (the term usually applied to the British islands).

Should he fail in procuring employment at his own business, he has all the advantages of the agriculturist. The countries west of the Alleghany mountains afford the greatest advantages, of any part of the United States, to emigrants of this description; and when they arrive at the head of the Ohio, the facility of descending that river opens to them a vast field, in which labour must, for ages to come, find a good market, as the vast tract of fine land yet unsettled will induce such an avidity for farming, that labourers, or men who have trades or professions, will adopt that line of life whenever they can raise the means of purchasing land. For this reason a very long time must elapse before there can be such a redundancy of labour as to reduce its value.’

Mechanics may form their own judgment from the preceding statements. Weavers, stocking-makers, and others, acquainted *only* with the cotton, woollen, hardware, and linen manufactures, would find employment very difficult to obtain. Those whose trades are of the first necessity will do well. In the western country mechanics complain of the difficulty which they experience in getting *paid* for their labour, much of what they receive being given them in orders upon shops for necessities and clothing; the extra *price* charged by the store-keeper, under these circumstances, causing a clear loss to some amount.

5. Labourers.

This class of emigrants are almost sure to obtain the means of subsistence; but they have some difficulties to encounter

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The following contains Mr. Cobbett's opinion on this subject, which exhibits a lively picture of the advantages enjoyed by the American poor, though perhaps it is overcharged.

"Labour is the great article of expence upon a farm; yet it is not nearly so great as in England, in proportion to the amount of the produce of a farm, especially if the poor-rates be, in both cases, included. However, speaking of the positive wages, a good farm-labourer has twenty-five pounds sterling a year and his board and lodging; and a good day-labourer has, upon an average, a dollar a day. A woman servant, in a farm-house, has from forty to fifty dollars a year, or eleven pounds sterling. These are the average of the wages throughout the country. But then, mind, the farmer has nothing (for really it is not worth mentioning) to pay in poor-rates, which in England must always be added to the wages that a farmer pays; and sometimes they far exceed the wages.

"It is too of importance to know what sort of labourers these Americans are; for, though a labourer is a labourer, still there is some difference in them; and these Americans are the best that I ever saw. They mow four acres of oats, wheat, rye, or barley in a day, and, with a cradle, lay it so smooth in the swarths, that it is tied up in sheaves with the greatest neatness and ease. They mow two acres and a half of grass in a day, and they do the work well. And the crops, upon an average, are all, except the wheat, as heavy as in England. The English farmer will want nothing more than these facts to convince him, that the labour, after all, is not so very dear.

"The causes of these performances, so far beyond those in England, is, first, the men are tall and well built; they are bony rather than fleshy; and they live, as to food, as well as man can live. And, secondly, they have been educated to do much in a day. The farmer here generally is at the head of his "boys," as they, in the kind language of the country, are called. Here is the best of examples. My old and beloved friend, Mr. James Paul, used, at the age of nearly sixty, to go at the head of his mowers, though his fine farm was his own, and though he might, in other respects, be called a rich man; and I have heard that Mr. Elias Hicks, the famous quaker

preacher, who lives about nine miles from this spot, has this year, at seventy years of age, cradled down four acres of rye in a day. I wish some of the preachers of other descriptions, especially our fat parsons in England, would think a little of this, and would betake themselves to "work with their hands the things which be good, that they may have to give to him who needeth," and not go on any longer gormandising and swelling upon the labour of those who need.

'Besides the great quantity of work performed by the American labourer, his skill, the versatility of his talent, is a great thing. Every man can use an axe, a saw, and a hammer. Scarcely one who cannot do any job at rough carpentering, and mend a plough or a waggon. Very few indeed who cannot kill and dress pigs and sheep, and many of them oxen and calves. Every farmer is a neat butcher; a butcher for market; and, of course, "the boys" must learn. This is a great convenience. It makes you so independent as to a main part of the means of housekeeping. All are ploughmen. In short, a good labourer here can do any thing that is to be done upon a farm.

'The operations necessary in miniature cultivation they are very awkward at. The gardens are ploughed in general. An American labourer uses a spade in a very awkward manner. They poke the earth about as if they had no eyes; and toil and muck themselves half to death to dig as much ground in a day as a Surrey man would dig in about an hour of hard work. Banking, hedging, they know nothing about. They have no idea of the use of a bill-hook, which is so adroitly used in the coppices of Hampshire and Sussex. An axe is their tool, and with that tool, at cutting down trees or cutting them up, they will do ten times as much in a day as any other men that I ever saw. Set one of these men on upon a wood of timber trees, and his slaughter will astonish you. A neighbour of mine tells a story of an Irishman, who promised he could do any thing, and whom, therefore, to begin with, the employer sent into the wood to cut down a load of wood to burn. He staid a long while away with the team, and the farmer went to him fearing some accident had

happened. The farmer. The had not got it. American, bla cut down, cut brought home.

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'An American clocks and water tells him when at night. He h then it is the wo hours. "Hours really they seem This is a great many disputes. The American servile, but always mark their character never rude. En they never come have no idea of s if their plenty did ers, in all counts of their labour. labourers are alw one case, and no from the free inst because he is a m money. And sha happy state?

happened. "What are you about all this time?" said the farmer. The man was hacking away at a hickory tree, but had not got it half down; and that was all he had done. An American, black or white, would have had half a dozen trees cut down, cut up into lengths, put upon the carriage, and brought home, in the time.

"So that our men, who come from England, must not expect that, in these common labours of the country, they are to surpass, or even equal, these "Yankess," who, of all men that I ever saw, are the most active and the most hardy. They skip over a fence like a greyhound. They will catch you a pig in an open field by racing him down; and they are afraid of nothing.

"An American labourer is not regulated, as to time, by clocks and watches. The sun, who seldom hides his face, tells him when to begin in the morning and when to leave off at night. He has a dollar, a whole dollar for his work; but then it is the work of a whole day. Here is no dispute about hours. "Hours were made for slaves," is an old saying; and really they seem here to act upon it as a practical maxim. This is a great thing in agricultural affairs. It prevents so many disputes. It removes so great a cause of disagreement. The American labourers, like the tavern-keepers, are never servile, but always civil. Neither boobishness nor meanness mark their character. They never creep and fawn, and are never rude. Employed about your house as day-labourers, they never come to interlope for victuals or drink. They have no idea of such a thing: their pride would restrain them if their plenty did not; and thus would it be with all labourers, in all countries, were they left to enjoy the fair produce of their labour. Full pocket or empty pocket, these American labourers are always the same men: no saucy cunning in the one case, and no base crawling in the other. This too arises from the free institutions of government. A man has a voice because he is a man, and not because he is the possessor of money. And shall I never see our English labourers in this happy state?"

'Let those English farmers, who love to see a poor wretched labourer stand trembling before them with his hat off, and who think no more of him than of a dog, remain where they are; or go off, on the cavalry horses, to the devil at once, if they wish to avoid the tax-gatherer; for they would here meet with so many mortifications, that they would, to a certainty, hang themselves in a month.'

According to this account, these American labourers are a wonderful set of fellows. They surpass our Englishmen amazingly; for we have no instance, in this country, of an old quaker, at seventy years of age, cradling down four acres of land in a day; nor can our ablest rustics mow two acres and a half of grass in a day. Even although their time be not regulated by clocks and watches, and they continue at work while the sun is above the horizon, yet there is a point beyond which human exertion cannot be repeatedly strained.

Connected with this subject, we will also give this popular writer's remarks on American pauperism, because it is completely at variance with Bristed's account, and in many particulars differs from the view we have given of the subject.

'It is notorious,' he says, 'that whatever may be the number of persons relieved by poor-rates, the greater part of them are Europeans, who have come hither, at different periods and under circumstances of distress, different, of course, in degree. There is, besides, a class of persons here of a description very peculiar; namely, the free negroes. Whatever may have been the motives which led to their emancipation, it is very certain that it has saddled the white people with a charge. These negroes are a disorderly, improvident set of beings; and the paupers, in the country, consist almost wholly of them. Take out the foreigners and the negroes, and you will find that the paupers of New York do not amount to a hundredth part of those of Liverpool, Bristol, Birmingham, or London, population for population. New York is a sea port, and the only great sea port of a large district of country. All the disorderly crowd to it. It teems with emigrants; but even there, a pauper who is a white native American is a great rarity.'

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But do the borough-villains think that the word *pauper* has the same meaning here that it has under their scorpion rod? A pauper under them means a man that is able and willing to work, and who does work like a horse; and who is so taxed, has so much of his earnings taken from him by them to pay the interest of their debt, and the pensions of themselves and their wives, children, and dependents, that he is actually starving and fainting at his work. This is what is meant by a pauper in England. But at New York, a pauper is, generally, a man who is unable, or, which is more frequently the case, unwilling to work; who is become debilitated from a vicious life; or who, like borough-mongers and priests, finds it more pleasant to live upon the labour of others than upon his own labour. A pauper in England is fed upon bones, garbage, refuse meat, and "substitutes for bread." A pauper here expects, and has, as much flesh, fish, and bread and cake as he can devour. How gladly would many a little tradesman, or even little farmer, in England, exchange his diet for that of a New York pauper!

Where there are such paupers as those in England, there are beggars; because when they find that they are nearly starved in the former character, they will try the latter in spite of all the vagrant acts that any hell-born funding system can engender. And who ever saw a beggar in America? "I have!" exclaims some spy of the borough-mongers, who hopes to become a borough-monger himself. And so have I too. I have seen a couple since I have been on this island. * * * But there are different sorts of beggars too as well as of paupers. In England a beggar is a poor creature, with hardly rags (mere rags) sufficient to cover its nakedness, so far even as common decency requires. A wretched mortal, the bare sight of whom would freeze the soul of an American within him. A dejected, broken down thing, that approaches you bare-headed, on one knee, with a trembling voice, with "Pray bestow your charity, for the Lord Jesus Christ's sake have compassion upon a poor soul;" and if you toss a halfpenny into his ragged hat, he exclaims in an extacy, "God Almighty bless your honour!" though you perhaps be but a

shoe-black yourself. An American beggar, dressed very much like other people, walks up to you as boldly as if his pockets were crammed with money, and, with a half smile that seems to say he doubts of the propriety of his conduct, very civilly asks you, *if you can HELP him to a quarter of a dollar*. He mostly states the precise sum, and never sinks below silver. In short, there is no begging, properly so called. There is nothing that resembles English begging even in the most distant degree.

‘As to the poor-rates, the real poor-rates, you must look to the country. In England the poor-rates equal in amount the rent of the land! Here I pay, in poor-rates, only seven dollars upon a rent of six hundred! And I pay my full share. In short, how is it possible that there should be paupers to any amount, where the common wages of a labourer are six dollars a week; that is to say, twenty-seven shillings sterling; and where the necessaries of life are, upon an average, of half the price that they are in England? How can a man be a pauper, where he can earn ten pounds of prime hog-meat a day, six days in every week? I was at a horse-race, where I saw at least five thousand men, and not one man in shabby clothes.

‘But some go back after they come from England; and the consul at New York has thousands of applications from men who want to go to Canada; and little bands of them go off to that *fine country* very often. These are said to be disappointed people. Yes, they expected the people at New York to come out in boats, I suppose, carry them on shore, and give up their dinners and beds to them! If they will work, they will soon find beds and dinners: if they will not, they ought to have none. What, did they expect to find here the same faces and the same posts and trees that they left behind them? Such foolish people are not worthy notice. The lazy, whether male or female, all hate a government under which every one enjoys his earnings, *and no more*. Low, poor, and miserable as they may be, their principle is precisely the same as that of borough-mongers and priests; namely, to live without labour on the earnings of others. The desire to

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live thus is almost universal; but with sluggards, thieves, bo-rough-mongers, and pilfers, it is a principle of action. Ask a priest why he is a priest. He will say (for he has vowed it on the altar!) that he believes himself called by the Holy Ghost to take on him the care of souls. But put the thing close to him; push him hard; and you will find it was the benefice, the money, and the tithes, that called him. Ask him what he wanted them for. That he might live, and live too without work. Oh! this work! It is an old saying, that if the devil find a fellow idle, he is sure to set him to work; a saying the truth of which the priests seem to have done their utmost to establish.

A writer on America, who is, by no means an extravagant advocate for emigration, says, "The classes of British society who would be benefited by an exchange of country, are, I conceive, first, that large and much injured body of men who are here chained to the country and the political system, which oppresses and grinds them to the earth,—I mean *our extreme poor*. They would not be in America a week, before they would experience a rapid advance in the scale of being. Instead of depending for subsistence upon charity soup, occasional parochial relief, and bowing with slavish submission to the tyrant of the poor-house, they would, if industrious and willing to labour, earn 4s. 6d. to 6s. 9d. a day, have meat at least seven times in the week, and know "no one who could make them afraid." The second class would be the mechanics, in branches of first necessity, with the general exclusion, however, of those acquainted with the British staple manufactures of cotton and woollen only; but for others, whose earnings here are under 30s. a week, or whose employment is of that precarious nature, that they cannot reasonably calculate, by the exercise of prudence and economy, on laying by any thing for what is called "a rainy day," or on making a provision for old age—for such persons as these, *particularly if they have, or anticipate the having a family*, emigration to America will certainly advance their pecuniary interests, though it may not enlarge their mental sphere of enjoyments. To these two classes, I would further add that of the small farmer who has

a family, for whom he can now barely provide the necessities of life, and concerning a provision for whom, when his own grey hairs are approaching to the grave, he can look forward with but little confidence or satisfaction; to such a man, if he should have one hundred pounds clear, that is, after paying all his expenses of removal, &c., America decidedly offers inducements very superior to those afforded by this country. Such a father would there feel himself relieved from a load of anxiety, the weight of which upon his spirits, and its influence in repressing his exertions, he is perhaps himself scarcely aware of, till he feels the difference by comparison when he has shaken it off in the New World;—but still to every proposed emigrant, even of these classes, I would say, that he must not expect to find either the country full of gold, or its inhabitants as agreeable or as sociable as the perhaps unequaled people of England. He must prepare too for many privations, and should previously have the *mind* of his family, particularly that of the mother of his children, so entirely in unison with his own, that they can all have the fortitude and good sense necessary to bear under the numerous privations they will certainly be subjected to, keeping in mind the substantial advantages they will enjoy, and setting off present evil against their future and increasing prosperity, which, in such a country, with a soil yet uncultivated, and in the infancy of its resources, may be considered as almost insured to them.

6. Artists, &c.

'The artist,' says Fearon, 'may succeed; but the probability is that he will not do so. I know instances on both sides, where perhaps equal talent has been possessed. A Mr. Shiels, a portrait-painter, who was a fellow-passenger of mine in the Washington, has been eminently successful in New York; Mr. ———, who arrived about the same time, has been unable to procure his boarding expences. Generally, I should not anticipate, judging from the character and habits of the people, that, at least, the superior artist would find it to his advantage to emigrate. The lawyer and the doctor, and,

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Several have succeeded well in the business of engraving, and of piano-forte making; nor is there much doubt of the success of any artist who joins ingenuity with steadiness and perseverance. Several instances of great success might be quoted; but such cases occur also in all civilized European countries where circumstances are favourable to the development of talent.

A literary man will not meet with any encouragement, the American library being imported, and newspaper editors having no inducement to occupy their talents upon any topics beyond extracts from English papers, advertisements, and shipping intelligence.

'Lawyers,' says the writer quoted above, 'are as common here as paupers are in England. Indeed, for those friends I see no kind of opening. Professional men literally swarm in the United States. An anecdote is told of a gentleman walking in Broadway: a friend passing, he called "Doctor," and immediately sixteen persons turned round to answer to the name. This is even more characteristic of lawyers. At almost every private door, cellar, or boarding-house, a tin plate is displayed, bearing the inscription "Attorney at Law." Clerks are not in demand in this or any other occupation. There are here no very large concerns, and most men are capable of attending to their own business. A shopman or clerk, who would receive in London his board and a salary of from 80*l.* to 100*l.* sterling per annum, would here experience great difficulty in gaining a situation; and if fortunate enough to obtain one, he would not receive more than from 3½ to 7 dollars per week, exclusive of board and lodging. The causes which generate so great a number of "legal friends," lie beyond the sources of my penetration. Perhaps we may date the frequency of litigation to the intricacy of the profession, which is bottomed on English practice; while the cheapness of college instruction, and the general diffusion of moderate wealth among mechanics and tradesmen, enable them to gratify their vanity by giving their sons a learned education.

This also opens the door to them for an appointment; and, by the way, the Americans are great place-hunters.

From the tenor of these remarks, it is evident that the poor man will be most benefited by emigration. Man does not transplant easily. In the land of his nativity he acquires associations, and forms connexions that are pleasing and profitable. The surrender of these advantages requires great resolution, and, where hope is blasted, his disappointment must be severe. The emigrant will, no doubt, find much ignorance, illiberality, and selfishness mixed up in the American character: but on the other hand, he will find a country possessed of the most enlightened civil and political advantages; a people reaping the full reward of their own labours; a people not paying tythes, and not subjected to heavy taxation without representation; a people with a small national debt; a people without spies and informers; a people without an enormous standing army; a people in possession of an extent of territory capable of sustaining an increase of millions; and tens of millions of population; and a people rapidly advancing towards national wealth and greatness.

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NORTH AMERICA.

THOSE parts of North America which still belong to Great Britain are extensive, and of considerable importance, though so thinly peopled, and in such a disadvantageous climate, that they sink into insignificance when compared with the great and flourishing colony belonging to Spain, or with the territories of the United States.

Divisions.—The chief of these possessions is Canada, now divided into two provinces, called Upper and Lower Canada, the former being the western division, on the north of the great lakes or sea of Canada; while the lower division is on the river St. Lawrence towards the east, and contains Quebec, the capital, and the chief city of our remaining settlements.

On the east of Canada, to the south of the river St. Lawrence, is Nova Scotia; which in 1784 was divided into two provinces, that of Nova Scotia in the south, and New Brunswick in the north.

What is called New Britain comprehends the most northern parts towards Hudson's bay, and the coast of Labrador. The large island of Newfoundland; that called Cape Breton; and the neighbouring isle St. John; complete the chief denominations of British territory. The regions around Hudson's bay, with Labrador and Greenland, are, from the intense severity

of the climate, declared free by nature. The present short description shall therefore only comprise Canada, and the other British provinces in the south, which form actual possessions or colonies.

CANADA.

Extent. THIS country is computed to extend from the gulf of St. Lawrence, and the isle of Anticosti, in the east, to the lake of Winnipeg in the west, or from long. 64 deg. to 97 deg. west from London, 33 degrees, which in that latitude may be about 1200 geographical miles. The breadth, from the lake of Erie in the south, or lat. 43 deg., may extend to lat. 49 deg., or 360 geographical miles; but the medial breadth is not above 200.

Climate and Seasons.—Mr. Wedd, who is a great admirer of ice, depicts the Canadian climate in the most favourable colours, and would persuade us that, though considerably further to the north, it is at least equal to that of New England. But even by his account the extremes of heat and cold are amazing; the thermometer in July and August rising to 96, while in winter the mercury freezes. The snow begins in November; and in January the frost is so intense that it is impossible to be out of doors for any time without the risk of what is called a frost-bite, which endangers the limb: and the warm intervals only increase the sensation and the jeopardy. But winter, as in Petersburg, is the season of amusement; and the sledges, drawn by one or two horses, afford a pleasant and speedy conveyance. Several stoves are placed in the hall, whence fires pass to the apartments; and there are double windows and doors. On going abroad, the whole body is co-

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vered with furs, except the eyes and nose. In May the thaw generally comes suddenly, the ice on the river bursting with the noise of cannon, and its passage to the sea is terrific, especially when a pile of ice crashes against a rock. Spring is summer, and vegetation instantaneous. The month of September is one of the most pleasant.

Mr. Gray, a recent traveller in this country, gives the following picturesque and amusing account of a Canadian winter:—

‘A Canadian winter is truly a subject of curiosity to the natives of Britain, or of any of the southern countries of Europe. It presents a view of nature perfectly new, and a variety of phenomena so highly interesting, that they cannot fail to arrest the attention of any one at all conversant in natural philosophy.

‘In Canada there cannot well be said to be more than two seasons of the year, summer and winter. The earth hath scarcely laid aside her mantle of snow, when you begin to feel the force of summer heat; and although the weather in September is mild and pleasant, it partakes more of the summer than of the autumn of temperate climates. The season of vegetation seems kindly prolonged, till surprised in a manner at once by the return of winter, without much of what may be called autumn weather. Frost is felt in October; but the sun still retains enough of power to make the weather, during the day, tolerably warm. During the month of November the frost becomes daily more severe, and snow begins to fall.

‘There is something very awful and terrific in a Canadian snow storm. A heavy fall of snow is generally accompanied by a violent gale of wind, which driving along the snow with immense velocity, and forming a thousand eddies and turnings, according to the inequalities of the surface, and resistance consequent thereon, you are able to form an idea of the velocity of the wind—it becomes, as it were, visible. The most severe snow storms they experience in Canada come from the north-east, the frozen regions of Hudson’s bay and Labrador.

‘The range of the thermometer in Canada is very extensive. The heat in summer runs into as great an extreme as the cold

in winter. The range, during the last twelve months, has been no less than 120 degrees; and what is not a little surprising, it has reached 60 degrees precisely, on each side of the freezing point (32). In summer the thermometer rose to 92, and in winter it fell to 28 below zero. I have been told, that the cold has been known in this country to freeze mercury, the thermometer having fallen below 40 under zero.

The effects of frost in this country are with difficulty guarded against, and are really in themselves very curious. I made an experiment which, to most people, will appear very surprising. I BURNED my hand with a COLD IRON. This may seem incredible; but a little explanation will convince you of the truth of what I have asserted.

In one of those very cold mornings we had in the month of January, when the thermometer had fallen near 60 degrees below the freezing point, I put my hand to a piece of iron that had been exposed to the frost in the open air all night. At first, I felt the sensation arising from extreme cold; in a few seconds I felt the sensation of heat; and it soon became so strong, and so painful, that I was as glad to quit my hold as if it had been a hot iron. Indeed, I found that I had kept it too long, because the part that had been in contact blistered in the same manner it would have done had it been a hot iron, and it was cured in the same way. No surgeon in England, had he been called in, could have suspected that it was not the effect of coming in contact with a *hot* iron. In truth, *heat* was the *cause* of the wound; and you will readily allow that I am correct, when I have explained to you a few circumstances.

Burning by a hot iron is produced by the heat, or what is technically called *caloric*, passing in such quantity, and with such rapidity, *into* the part in contact with the iron, that the continuity and arrangement of the part is destroyed. Burning with a *cold* iron arises from the heat passing in such quantity, and with such rapidity, *out of* the part of the body in contact with the cold iron, as to produce the same effect. Heat, in both cases, is the cause; and its going *into* the body *from* the iron, or *into* the iron *from* the body, does not alter the nature of the effect.

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There is another effect very frequently produced by cold in this country, which bears no analogy (as in the preceding example) to any thing produced by external heat; and a dreadful effect it is—I mean *frost-bitten*.

When the weather is very cold, particularly when accompanied by a smart wind, instances of people being *frost-bitten* frequently occur. Not a season passes without some of the sentinels being frost-bitten on their posts. Sometimes their hands and face, sometimes their feet, are affected; and a mortification of the part generally follows, if the proper remedy is not applied in time. The remedy will seldom be applied if you are attacked in the dark, which is often the case with those who travel at night, as well as with sentinels. Their own feelings do not inform them of the presence of the enemy; and they are not likely, in the dark, to have him discovered by other people. He insidiously makes a breach; and, if he can keep his ground but for a short time, it is in vain afterwards to think of dislodging him. In the towns, during the day, there is less danger, because you will be stopped by the first person who observes the symptoms. This is readily and easily done, as the part frost-bitten becomes white, while the rest of the face is very red.

In so critical a moment, people do not stand on any ceremony, as you may suppose. They know you are not conscious of your situation; and they also know, that before they could convince you that you are frost-bitten, and on the point of losing your nose perhaps, it might actually be too late to apply the remedy; they instantly take a handful of snow, and either rub the part themselves, or make you do it.

It certainly is enough to startle a stranger, to see a person, perfectly unknown to you, come running up, with a handful of snow, calling out, "*Your nose, Sir,—your nose,—you are frost-bitten;*" and without further ceremony, either themselves rubbing it without mercy, or making you do so.

Rivers.—The great river St. Lawrence has been already described in the general view of North America. The Utawas is the most important of all its tributary streams, issuing from various lakes, towards the centre of Canada; its waters are of

a bright greenish colour, while the St. Lawrence is muddy. Many rivers of smaller consequence flow into the river St. Lawrence from the north.

Lakes.—The large lakes have been also already mentioned: there are many others of which the enumeration would be tedious; and some difficulty arises from the want of any precise boundary in the north of Canada.

Mountains.—Nor have the mountains been examined by any geologist, who could indicate their ranges or illustrate their structure. The chief ridge seems to be in the northern part of the province, in a direction south-west and north-east, giving source to the many streams which flow south-east, while a few pass to Hudson's bay. But there are many mountains between Quebec and the sea, while towards the Utawas only a few are scattered, and to the south-west there are ample plains.

Zoology.—The chief singularities in zoology are the moose, the beaver, and some other animals, for which Mr. Pennant's Arctic Zoology may be consulted. The rein-deer appears in the northern part, and the puma and lynx are not unknown. Both the Canadas are much infested with rattlesnakes. The humming bird is not uncommon at Quebec.

Mineralogy.—The mineralogy is of little consequence; and even iron seems to be rare. There are said to be lead mines which produce some silver; and it is probable that copper may be found, as it appears in the south-west of lake Superior. Coal abounds in the island of Cape Breton, but this valuable mineral has not been discovered in Canada. If so wide a territory were properly examined by skilful naturalists, which ought always to be a primary care with every government, for the most advantageous position of settlements, and that every advantage may be secured, it is highly probable that important discoveries might be made. Little is said of warm springs, or mineral waters.

Soil and Agriculture.—The face of the country is generally mountainous and woody; but there are savannas, and plains of great beauty, chiefly towards Upper Canada. In the lower province the soil mostly consists of a loose blackish earth of

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ten or twelve inches, incumbent on cold clay. This thin mould is, however, very fertile, and manure was seldom or never used by the French settlers; but of late marl has been employed, and is found in considerable quantities on the shores of the river St. Lawrence. A little tobacco is cultivated for private use, with many culinary vegetables, and considerable crops of grain, wheat being reckoned among the exports: a kind of vine is indigenous, but the grapes are sour, and little larger than currants. Raspberries are also indigenous; and there are good currants and gooseberries. A great variety of trees is found in the forests; beech, oak, elm, ash, pine, sycamore, chesnut, walnut, &c. The sugar maple tree also abounds, and the sugar is generally used in the country. Of this tree there are two kinds, the swamp and the mountain maple. Mr. Weld points out some difficulties in the tenures of land, which ought to be removed, as in such a climate there is no occasion for a barrier against colonization.

Population.—The population of Canada, at the time it came into the possession of the British in 1759-60, amounted to 75,600 souls, as appears from general Murray's report to the British government, immediately after the conquest. At that time the extensive country now called Upper Canada was not inhabited by any Europeans. At present the two Canadas contain at least 400,000 inhabitants: of these, Lower Canada contains about 240,000. The descendants of the old Canadians constitute at least nine-tenths of the population of Lower Canada. In Upper Canada, the population amounts to about 160,000. These are all British, at least they speak English, and are governed entirely by the laws of England, both in civil and criminal matters; and in questions relative to real property, as well as in questions relative to personal property.

From the preceding statement of the population, it is evident that the increase in Lower Canada for these last fifty years has been very great; it has, in fact, nearly tripled. In Upper Canada the increase has been very rapid, as several years elapsed after the conquest before any part of Upper Canada was settled or cultivated. Thirty years ago, Upper Canada was nearly a continued forest;—that a population of

expence of a family, or enable their owners to support that state of respectability in the country which their father did; so that, instead of one respectable and wealthy head of a family, who could protect and assist the younger branches, giving them a good education, and putting them forward in the world, you have half a dozen poor dispirited creatures, who have not energy or power to improve either their lands or themselves. Without great industry, and some capital, new lands cannot be brought into cultivation, nor can those already cleared be made very productive.

The French law supposes that matrimony is a co-partnership; and that, consequently, on the death of the wife, the children have a right to demand from their father the half of his property, as heirs to their mother. If the wife's relations are not on good terms with the father, a thing that sometimes happens, they find it no difficult matter to induce the children to demand a *partage*, or division, which often occasions the total ruin of the father, because he loses credit, equal, at least, to his loss of property, and often to a greater extent. His powers are diminished, and his children still have a claim on him for support.

One effect of this law, and not one of the least material, is, that the affection between parents and children is likely to be destroyed by it; and, in fact, it is remarked, that in this country the instances of unfeeling conduct between parents and children are extremely frequent, and a spirit of litigation is excited amongst them.

The wife being by marriage invested with a right to half the husband's property, and being rendered independent of him, is perhaps the remote cause that the fair sex have such influence in France; and in Canada, it is well known, that a great deal of consequence, and even an air of superiority to the husband, is assumed by them.

The English and American settlers in Canada preserve the manners and customs of their respective countries. A great proportion of the inhabitants of Upper Canada are natives of Scotland; who, by their habits of industry, economy, and perseverance, seem peculiarly fitted for improving this fine country.

When the navigation of the St. Lawrence becomes impracticable, little business is done by the merchants, who then appropriate a considerable part of their time to amusements. It is necessary to do something to give a little variety to the sameness of a six months' winter. They have parties of pleasure in town, and parties of pleasure in the country, in which are dancing, music, and the social enjoyments of conviviality.

In winter, when wheel carriages can no longer be used, a sort of sledge, called a *cariole*, is substituted. It passes over the snow without sinking deep. It is placed on what they call *runners*, which resemble in form the irons of a pair of skais, and rise up in front in the same manner, and for the same purposes. The *cariole* is generally from nine to twelve inches above the snow. Some, called *high runners*, are about eighteen inches. The body of the *cariole* varies in shape, according to the fancy of the owner. It is sometimes like the body of a phaeton, sometimes like a chair or gig, sometimes like a *vis-a-vis*, and sometimes like a family coach or chariot. The *cariole*, in short, is the name for all sorts of vehicles used in winter, from a market cart up to a state coach. The generality of them are light, open carriages, drawn by one horse. The snow, after being trodden on for some time, becomes compact enough to bear the horse, and gives very little resistance to the *cariole*. It is, however, a very unpleasant conveyance, from the constant succession of inequalities which are formed in the snow by the *carioles*. These inequalities the Canadians call *cahots* (from the French word *cahoter*, to jolt), and they certainly are very well named, for a traveller is jolted as if he crossed a field with very deep furrows and high narrow ridges.

'In all countries,' says Gray, 'people pass their leisure hours pretty much alike: that is, they dedicate them to amusement. In Canada, as most of their winter hours are leisure hours, there is, of course, some ingenuity necessary to give such variety to their amusements as may prevent them from becoming insipid by frequent repetition. Hence, in Quebec and Montreal, to the regular town parties are added irregular country parties. Pic-nic feasts, where every one

carries with him as the place of the ladies and before dinner; being a constant most unmerciful frequently upon poultry, or roasting amusement of the excessively pleasant passed the evening the catch, to drive wind blow, and sides, there some neither man nor consequence is, again strike up to partners; what comes at last, a ward without the bably would have attempted it in the disasters, or incozest, however, to

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carries with him a ready-dressed dish, are very common; and as the place of rendezvous is generally a few miles out of town, the ladies and gentlemen have the pleasure of a little *carrioling* before dinner; the roads, it is true, are often abominably bad, being a constant succession of *cahots*, in which they are jolted most unmercifully; not to say any thing of carriages being very frequently upset, and their contents, ladies, gentlemen, soup, poultry, or roast beef, tumbled into the snow, to the no small amusement of the rest of the party. It is also any thing but *excessively pleasant*, after having dined, danced, supped, and passed the evening in festive glee, enlivened by the song and the catch, to drive home in the middle of the night, let the wind blow, and the snow drift, as much as they please. Besides, there sometimes come on such *dreadful storms*, that neither man nor horse can shew their face to them. The consequence is, that the party remain all night; the fiddlers again strike up the merry dance, and the whist players cut for partners; what cannot be cured must be endured. Daylight comes at last, and enables the party to take the road homeward without the danger of losing their way, which most probably would have been the case with some of them had they attempted it in the course of the night. The little hardships, disasters, or inconveniences, of these country parties, give a zest, however, to the more elegant amusements of the town.

When it is necessary to deviate from the beaten track, or to cross the woods or fields, snow-shoes are used. They are made of a kind of net-work, fixed on a frame, shaped like a boy's paper kite; they are about two feet long, and eighteen inches broad, and therefore take in so much of the surface of the snow, that they sink but a very few inches. The military in Canada are all provided with snow-shoes, and are marched out on them, that it may be no novelty in case of their taking the field in winter. For the same reason they are sometimes encamped amongst the snow.

Could the husbandman, the labourer, and all those whose trade or profession in Canada lead them to work in the open air, follow their occupations all the year round, it certainly would be of great advantage to the country, and to the people.

At present, a great proportion of the people are obliged to live twelve months on six months' work, which implies their receiving double wages. This is certainly the case; wages are very high; 4s., 5s., to 6s. a day are given, according to the kind of work, and merit of the workman. The idleness of their winter life has other bad effects. It generates habits prejudicial to exertion; so that, even in summer, they do not perform so much work as men who are in habits of industry all the year round; and the desire they evince for spirituous liquors is strong and ruinous. Yet, under all these disadvantages, Canada, as well as Russia, may become a great, trading, and populous country.

Language.—The French language is still retained by the descendants of the French settlers in Lower Canada. It is evidently the interest of the British government, as well as of the Canadians, that the English language only should be spoken; but the means of effecting this desirable change have been strangely neglected. English schools have indeed been established in some parts of the country; but few or none of the Canadians have ever sent their children to them.

Towns.—Samuel de Champlain, who founded *Quebec* in the year 1606, deserves immortal honours for the judiciousness of his choice. It ever has been considered, and probably ever will be considered, as the capital of the Canadas. It certainly is the key of the river St. Lawrence, which contracts suddenly opposite to the city, being only about a mile in breadth; and widens immediately above the city. The grand battery of *Quebec* is opposite to the narrowest part of the river, and is an extensive range of very heavy ordnance, which, if properly served, must destroy any vessels which might attempt to pass, or come near enough to injure the town. The river opposite to *Quebec* is about 100 feet in depth, and affords good anchorage; for a considerable way above *Quebec* it is navigable for ships of any size.

The site of *Quebec* seems to have been destined by nature for the capital of an empire. Above the island of *Orleans*, the St. Lawrence expands, and a basin is formed by the junction of a river called the St. Charles, which takes its

course through the ridge of hills called *cap* of this ridge bold prom an elevation and the b same eleva the ridge through wh has every s the great r

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course through a plain, separated from the great river by a ridge of high land, about nine miles in length, from a place called cape Rouge, to cape Diamond. The general breadth of this ridge is from one to two miles. Cape Diamond is a bold promontory, advancing into the river St. Lawrence, of an elevation of 350 feet above the river, nearly perpendicular; and the bank the whole way to cape Rouge is nearly of the same elevation, rising from the river almost perpendicular: the ridge slopes towards the north till it reaches the valley through which the river St. Charles runs. This ridge of land has every appearance of having been an island, surrounded by the great river.

On the north-east, or lower end of the peninsula, Quebec is situated; and the line of its fortifications runs from the river St. Charles, across, to the top of the bank which overlooks the St. Lawrence; the distance is about half a mile: and from the line of fortification to the point of cape Diamond the distance is about a quarter of a mile: within this space stands the city of Quebec. It consists of an Upper and Lower Town: the Upper Town is much elevated above the Lower Town, and separated from it by a line of steep rocks. Formerly the river St. Lawrence, at high water, came up close to these rocks; but as the tide rises and falls here about fifteen feet, it gave an opportunity of taking from the river a considerable space; wharfs were built at low water mark, and even at some places beyond it, and the intermediate ground filled up to such a height that it remained dry at high water. Upon this situation streets were laid out, and houses built. They are of considerable breadth, and the houses are large and commodious; those next the river have attached to them very extensive warehouses, and vessels come close to the wharfs to discharge their cargoes.

The Lower Town is not included in the fortifications, but the passes to it are commanded by the batteries in the line of fortification which surrounds the Upper Town; so that the approach by land to the Lower Town will hardly be attempted by an enemy. The communication from the Lower Town to the Upper Town is by a winding street; at the top of which

is a fortified gate. At the entrance of this gate is a large area, in which is situated the house (dignified with the title of a palace) in which the bishops of Quebec formerly resided: at present it is used for public offices, and accommodates the supreme council and house of assembly. Beyond the palace is the grand battery. To the left, not far from the entrance of the gate, is another area or square; and on the side next the river is the Chateau de St. Louis, in which the governor resides. Opposite to the chateau, on the other side of the square, is the English church, a very elegant building; and the court house, where elegance is not so conspicuous. On the north side of the square is a very handsome building, erected for, and used as a tavern, hotel, and assembly room. From the area of the market-place different streets diverge, leading to the different gates of the city.

There are three nunneries in Quebec, the Hotel Dieu, the Ursulines, and the General Hospital. The nuns here are not so useless, however, as those in the south of Europe; they employ themselves in teaching young girls reading and needle-work. No where do the Roman catholics and protestants live on better terms than here. They go to each other's marriages, baptisms, and burials without scruple; nay, they have even been known to make use of the same church for religious worship, one party using it in the forenoon, and the other in the afternoon. The monasteries are mostly extinct, and many of the catholic clergy are distinguished for intelligence and liberality.

There are few objects of curiosity in Quebec. The houses are generally of stone; small, ugly, and inconvenient. A large garrison is maintained, but 5000 soldiers would be necessary to man the works. The inhabitants are supposed to be 10,000, about two-thirds being French; and the presence of the governor, courts, and garrison, conspire to render it gay and lively.

The Upper Town of Quebec being very elevated, enjoys fine air, and a most commanding view of the surrounding country. 'I have seen most of the fine views of Europe,' writes Mr. Gray; 'and I can safely say, they do not surpass,

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perhaps they do not equal, that from the flagstaff of Quebec on cape Diamond: The majestic St. Lawrence under your feet, receiving the waters of the river St. Charles, and forming the basin of Quebec, from three to four miles across;—further on you see the river dividing itself into two branches, forming the beautiful island of New Orleans;—on the opposite side of the great river, a finely wooded country, terminating at point Levi, conceals the course and bed of one of the branches of the river;—the island of Orleans, the falls of Montmorency, strike the observer; and the villages of Beauport, Charlebourg, and Lorette, appear at a distance, and render the woods in which they are embosomed more interesting. The eye follows the northern branch of the St. Lawrence till it is lost amongst the distant mountains. To the southward you look over a level country for upwards of sixty miles, till the view is bounded by mountains. This extensive tract is still in a great measure in a state of nature;—nothing to be seen but the stately forest in all its majesty. It is difficult to imagine a more happy blending of art and nature;—villages, country houses, cottages, corn fields,—are combined with primeval woods, fine rivers, beautiful islands, magnificent waterfalls, towering hills, and lofty mountains.

Commerce has made, and will continue, Quebec as the first city in the Canadas; perhaps it may become the first in America, for it has a much more extensive communication with the interior of America than the new city of Washington, or any other city in America. Neither the Patomak, Chesapeake, Delaware, nor Hudson's river, are at all to be compared to the St. Lawrence, either in magnitude or extent of back country. It is worthy of notice, that a person may go from Quebec to New Orleans, at the mouth of the Mississippi, by water the whole way, except about the space of one mile from the source of the Illinois river, to the source of a river which falls into lake Michigan.

Montreal is situated on an island; but the island is so large in proportion to the water which surrounds it, that you are not sensible of its insularity. A branch of the river Utawas, which falls into the St. Lawrence above Montreal, takes a northerly

direction, and forms the island, which is about 20 miles in length by 10 in breadth. The city of Montreal is situated near the upper end of it, on the south side of the island, at the distance of about 180 miles from Quebec.

Montreal was once surrounded by a wall, which served to defend it against any sudden attack from the Indians; but as this is now no longer to be dreaded, the wall is about to be removed, that the town may be enlarged with the greater facility. The St. Lawrence comes close to the town on the south side, where there is a great depth of water, but vessels have much difficulty to get at it.

Montreal may be said to be a handsome town. Its streets are regular and airy, and contain many handsome and commodious houses. It is fully as large and as populous as Quebec, containing about 10,000 people, the great mass of whom are Canadians. Its suburbs, too, are extensive. It has suffered greatly from fire at different times, and the precautions taken to prevent the spreading of conflagration exceed even those of Quebec; for, in addition to the roofs being generally covered with tinned plates, the windows have outside shutters, covered with plate iron.

The island of Montreal is wholly in a state of cultivation; and it is surrounded by a country generally cultivated. What adds much to its consequence is, its being situated near the *embouchure* of several rivers, which bring down from the countries through which they flow a great deal of very valuable produce.

Although the St. Lawrence is navigable for large vessels as high up as Montreal, yet the navigation above Quebec is attended with so many inconveniences, that in general it is found more advantageous for the vessels to stop at Quebec, and for such of their cargoes as come from Montreal, to be brought down in river craft.

The chief trade is in furs. The north-west company consists of a number of merchants associated for the purposes of trading with the Indians in furs. They formed the association in the year 1784; and have carried on the trade with great spirit and success. Those who manage the concerns of

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the company reside in Montreal; they receive a compensation for their trouble, besides their share of the profits of the concern. From Montreal they send up the country large quantities of goods, to be bartered with the Indians for furs. For the conveyance of these goods, and for bringing back the furs, they have employed, generally, about 50 canoes, and upwards of 1000 people; such as canoe-men (styled *voyageurs*), guides, clerks, &c. The capital employed in this trade, in goods alone, is upwards of 100,000*l*.

At the grand egress of the river St. Lawrence, on the lake Ontario, near what is called the lake of a thousand islands, stands the town of *Kingston*, more remarkable from its position than any other circumstance. The forts of *Niagara* and *Detroit* belong to the southern side of the boundary. The little town of *Trois Rivières*, or *Three Rivers*, stands between Quebec and Montreal, and is chiefly remarkable for the resort of the savages: but though it contains little more than 250 houses, it is considered as the third town in British America. *Sorelle* was founded in 1787 for the American loyalists, but contains only 100 scattered houses: it is at the distance of fifteen leagues from Montreal towards Quebec; and the chief business is ship-building.

York, the capital of Upper Canada, is a small pleasant town, containing a good many frame houses; but the land is rather low and unhealthy in its neighbourhood. *Newark* contains about 500 inhabitants, and many of the buildings are handsome, being composed of brick and stone. It has two churches, a jail, and academy; six taverns, and about 30 dry-goods stores, where every article can be had on as good terms as in Montreal. The fort here is garrisoned with 500 men, of the 41st regiment; and the remainder of the regiment are distributed along the banks of the lake. *Queenstown* contains about 300 inhabitants: it has six stores and several taverns, and a considerable trade along the lakes. *Malden*, at the west end of lake Erie, consists of about 100 houses, and has a garrison, and a great trade with the Indian tribes.

Manufactures.—A variety of articles for domestic purposes, which used formerly to be imported from Britain, are now

manufactured in Canada; particularly stoves, bar-iron, and cooking utensils; also leather, hats, soap, and candles. Canada has always been famous for the manufacture of snuff; and a quantity of sugar, and coarse linens and woollens for home consumption, are also manufactured.

Commerce.—Wheat is the most considerable article of exportation from Canada; upwards of one million bushels have been exported in one year; not half that quantity, however, was exported on an average of five years ending in 1805. The next articles of consequence in the list of exports are, flour and biscuit. The average amount of flour for five years, ending 1805, was 19,822 barrels at 42s. 6d. per barrel, 42,183l. 17s. 6d.

The fur trade of Canada, in point of value and of importance to Great Britain, is nearly equal to any other branch of the Canada trade. The duty paid in England on furs and skins, imported from Canada, amounted, per annum, on an average of four years, ending 1806, to 22,053l. The lumber trade is of more real value to Britain, because timber is of more real use in society. The corn trade is, perhaps, more valuable to the Canadian, than the fur trade; but the trade in furs employs a great number of people, and a large capital.

The north-west company, who have entirely monopolized to themselves the fur trade, are a self-created company, not acknowledged by government, but who have united their capital and exertions for their mutual benefit. As they have at present no competitors in the north-west territory, they have the trade in their own power in a great measure: but they are obliged to pay a considerable price for the skins, because the Indians have been so long accustomed to the trade, that they have long ago learned that a beaver skin is worth more than a two-penny knife, or a six-penny trinket.

When the Berlin and Milan decrees threatened to shut all the ports of Europe against Britain, the government took some pains to introduce the cultivation of *hemp* into Canada, a measure which promises to become very successful. But the produce of the forests are articles of the greatest importance amongst the exports of Canada. Staves are exported to

a great amount, built by contract fish, and pot are been observed.

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a great amount, and some very handsome ships are annually built by contract at Quebec and Montreal. A quantity of fish, and pot and pearl ashes, is also exported; but as has been observed, the export of furs is of the most advantage. Besides the north-west company, another company which trades to the south-west, and is generally termed the Michilimackinack company, has been lately established. The Hudson's bay company conduct their business on a very narrow scale, and with little benefit to the public, which has induced both Mr. Burke and Mr. Mackenzie to condemn the monopoly they hold. The latter gentleman has given a most interesting account of this curious trade.

The total exports from Quebec alone in 1806 amounted to 895,949*l*, and the number of vessels cleared from the customhouse was 384, equal to 70,375 tons, and navigated by 3330 seamen. In the year 1806 the tonnage was only 33,996; which clearly shows the natural amelioration of the country, arising from the embargo in America.

The principal imports are spirits, wines, tobacco, sugar, salt, and provisions for the troops. Manufactured articles are also imported to a great amount from England.

Religion.—The religion is the Roman catholic; but the British settlers follow their own modes of worship. There are only twelve clergymen of the church of England, including the bishop of Quebec; while the catholic clergy are 126.

Government.—By an act passed in 1791, a legislative council and an assembly are appointed for each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, having power to make laws with the consent of the governor; but the king may declare his dissent at any time within two years after receiving any bill. The legislative council is to consist of seven members for Upper Canada, and fifteen for the Lower province, summoned by the governor under the king's authority, and nominated during their lives, except forfeited by an absence of four years, or by paying allegiance to a foreign power. The house of assembly is to consist of fifty members from Lower Canada, and sixteen from Upper Canada, chosen by the freeholders in

the towns and districts. These councils are to assemble at least once every year; and the house of assembly continues four years, except in case of prior dissolution. The governor, together with such of the executive council as shall be appointed by the king for the affairs of each province, are to be a court of civil jurisdiction for hearing and determining appeals; subject, however, to such appeals from their sentence as heretofore existed. All lands in Upper Canada are to be granted hereafter in free and common socage; and also in Lower Canada where the grantees shall desire it, subject nevertheless to alterations by an act of the legislature. British America is superintended by an officer styled Governor-general of the four British Provinces in North America, who, besides other powers, is commander-in-chief of all the British troops in the four provinces, and the governments attached to them, and Newfoundland. Each of the provinces has a lieutenant-governor, who, in the absence of the governor-general, has all the powers requisite to a chief magistrate.

The policy of giving Canada such a form of government is very questionable. But the English are so fond of their constitution, that they think it is only necessary to shew it to all the world, and it must be accepted with joy. The impossibility of establishing in an instant a free constitution, amongst an ignorant and superstitious people, is not considered. And how can legitimate Frenchmen, the descendants of men who never formed a correct idea themselves of the nature of civil and religious liberty, impress it on the minds of their children? or how can men who can neither read nor write, which is the case with many of the members of the house of assembly, discharge the important duties of a legislator? This fact, which is stated by travellers of respectability, of itself evinces that it was too soon to give the French Canadians a share of the government. If Upper and Lower Canada had but one house of assembly, the English party would always have the ascendancy; but Canada being divided into two provinces, and the French Canadians in Lower Canada forming the majority, the government of the country is virtually placed in their hands.

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A union of the two provinces, in government, laws, and language, would be equally advantageous to the colonists and the mother country.

Military Force.—In Lower Canada there are about 60,000 militia. They are mustered at stated periods; and, in the towns, they are clothed and armed, and have learned the business of soldiers so well, that they are fit to be brigaded with the troops of the line. In the late war their courage and conduct were excellent; which, no doubt, arose from their hatred to the inhabitants of the United States. But, notwithstanding their quiet and inoffensive habits, it is doubtful how they would act in case Canada was invaded by the French, for whom they must have a natural predilection.

Revenue.—The civil list, including the whole civil expenditure of the provinces of Lower Canada for 1806, amounted to 26,213*l.* 11*s.* 8*d.* sterling; but of this sum the province paid only 16,227*l.* 14*s.* 0*d.*, as appears by the accounts laid before the house of assembly; the remainder was paid out of the *military chest*, from funds raised by draughts on the British government. The military establishment, with repairs of forts, &c. is stated at 100,000*l.*; and the like sum for presents to the savages, and salaries to officers employed among them for trade, &c. in Upper Canada. But the advantages of the commerce are thought to counterbalance these expences.

History.—When we reflect on the number of years this country has been in the possession of Europeans, we cannot help being surprised that it should still retain so much of its original rudeness: it is now about 260 years since it was taken possession of by the French. The infant colony seems to have been very much neglected by Old France, who did not by any means watch over it with a motherly care. From the year 1535, when Quebec was first discovered, to the year 1664, a period of 129 years, the government and trade of Canada were in the possession of private merchants holding under patents from the king of France. In the year 1664, the king assumed the government; a governor was appointed; but the trade of the country was given exclusively to the com-

pany *des Indes Occidentales*. The English had by this time established colonies in New England and at Boston, who did every thing in their power to weaken and annoy the French colony, which they found interfered in their trade with the Indians. Indeed, the English attacked and took Quebec so far back as the year 1629, but it was restored to the French by the treaty of St. Germain in 1683. The French government, even after they took the colony under their own immediate care, seem to have paid more attention to the fur trade, to exploring the interior of the country, cultivating the friendship of the Indians, and spreading the Roman catholic religion, than to the improvement of the country in agriculture, the promotion of the arts, and the domestic pursuits of civil society.

In 1759, general Wolfe, with infinite labour, contrived to carry his little army to the top of the heights on the St. Lawrence, and took his stand on the plains of Abraham. Montcalm, the French general, vainly confident, marched out of the city, engaged the English, and was beat close to the walls. It was very unaccountable that the French should resolve to come out of a strong fortification (where they might long have resisted the assailants) and put themselves on a footing with their enemies. Besides the troops in the city of Quebec, the French had 10,000 men encamped at Beauport, within a few miles of Quebec. If an arrangement had taken place with these troops, that they should attack Wolfe at the moment the garrison sallied forth, his little army must have been cut to pieces. To this error we owe Quebec. General Montcalm, as well as the brave Wolfe, fell in the engagement: very different, however, must have been their feelings in their last moments. The conduct of the Frenchman, in rashly sacrificing his troops and the interest of his country, could not bear reflection. Wolfe saw his troops triumphant; they had beaten the enemy: he died in the arms of victory.

General Montgomery, in the winter of 1775, besieged Quebec with an American army, and, when reinforced by general Arnold, attacked the city by assault on the night of the 31st

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December. They were repulsed;—the general and two of his aids-de-camp were killed. The blockade continued during the winter: but on the arrival of troops from England in the spring, the siege was raised, and the Americans driven out of the province.

The different attempts and their failures, lately made by the Union to separate Canada from Great Britain, are well known; and will tend, it is probable, to weaken those preposterous desires for conquest, which seem to actuate the American government.

GASPE.

Before closing this account of Canada, it may be proper to mention a part of it separately. It is called the 'Inferior district of Gaspé;' and is situated to the southward of the river St. Lawrence, from cape Chat downwards, and comprehends a considerable extent of country on the west coast of the gulf of St. Lawrence, in which are found two deep bays, viz. Gaspé bay and Chaleur bay.

The district of Gaspé has a governor appointed by the king, and there is an inferior court of king's bench for the decision of such civil suits as do not exceed 20*l*., and to take cognizance of criminal matters that are not capital. At present, the population, reckoning resident settlers only, is not more than 3500. In the summer time, a great many more are attracted for the purpose of carrying on the fishery, which is done in all its different stages. The bays and coasts of Gaspé abound with codfish, salmon, and many other sorts of fish. There are several fishing stations along the coast; those of most importance are at Percé and Chaleur bay. The trade employs annually about a dozen square-rigged vessels, besides a great many small craft. Fish, to the value of 60,000*l*. a year, including what is sent to Quebec to be re-shipped for the West Indies, and elsewhere, or used in the country, are cured and sent to a market. The greatest part, however, is sent direct from Gaspé to the West Indies or Mediterranean.

REMARKS.

From the preceding description, an opinion may be formed respecting the present state of British America. Upper Canada will no doubt soon become a thickly settled country. Most of the emigrants to these extensive regions are Scotch, Irish, and natives of the United States. The climate is mild, the land in general fertile, and the tenure easy. The laws also appear fair and equal; but there is a good deal of underhand management and intrigue, and neither independence of sentiment, nor freedom of speech or of the press, are encouraged. Indeed, they can hardly be tolerated in a country where the government depends for support upon the military, who are of course jealous, haughty, and overbearing.

It is, however, impossible that this state of things should last; and accordingly a very powerful opposition has lately been made to the unconstitutional conduct of the governor. This spirit of resistance will naturally gather strength as the population increases; and the separation of this part of the British empire from the mother country is perhaps not far distant. The encouragement lately offered by our commercial regulations, for the exportation of agricultural products from Canada, will no doubt operate so as to produce a temporary acquiescence to the mandates of government; but if any attempts to domineer despotically be persisted in, the result is obvious. The British ships might block up the navigation of the St. Lawrence against the inhabitants of Upper Canada; but the grand canal, which is intended to join the lakes with the Hudson river, will offer a still more eligible outlet for the produce of this country.

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NEW BRUNSWICK.

THE ancient province of Nova Scotia was granted by James I. to his secretary Sir William Alexander, afterwards earl of Stirling; and the origin of the title of baronets of Nova Scotia is well known. It was afterwards seized by the French, who seem indeed to have been the first possessors, and by whom it was called Acadie; but it was surrendered to England by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713. In 1784, it was divided into two provinces, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia. In the former there are two considerable bays, and a river of some length, called St. John's; while that of St. Croix divides New Brunswick from the province of Main, belonging to the United States. The river of St. John is navigable for vessels of 50 tons about 60 miles, and for boats about 200; the tide flowing about 80. The fish are salmon, bass, and sturgeon: and the banks, enriched by the annual freshes, are often fertile, level, and covered with large trees. This river affords a common and near route to Quebec. There are many lakes, among which the Grand lake is 30 miles long, and about nine broad. The great chain of Apalachian mountains passes on the north-west of this province, probably expiring at the gulf of St. Lawrence. The capital is Frederick-town on the river St. John, about 90 miles from its estuary. St. Ann's is almost opposite; and there are some other settlements nearer the bay of Fundy, with a fort called Howe. The chief products are timber and fish.

NOVA SCOTIA.

THIS province is about 200 miles in length, by about 80 of medial breadth, being inferior in size to New Brunswick. There are several considerable rivers, among which that of Annapolis is navigable fifteen miles, for ships of 100 tons. The bay of Fundy, between New Brunswick and Nova Scotia, extends 50 leagues inland; the ebbing and flowing of the tide being from 45 to 60 feet. It is called by the French Acadie, has New England and the Atlantic ocean to the south and south-west, and the river and gulf of St. Lawrence to the north and north-east. Though it lies in a very favourable part of the temperate zone, it has a winter of an almost insupportable length and coldness, continuing at least seven months in the year: to this immediately succeeds, without the intervention of any thing that may be called spring, a summer of a heat as violent as the cold, though of no long continuance; and they are wrapped in the gloom of a perpetual fog, even long after the summer season has commenced. In most parts, the soil is thin and barren, the corn it produces is of a shrivelled kind like rye, and the grass intermixed with a cold spongy moss. However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in Nova Scotia which do not yield to the best land in New England. The capital is Halifax, on the bay of Chebucto, well situated for the fishery, with communications by land and water with other parts of this province, and New Brunswick. There is a good harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war, employed in protecting the fishing vessels, is laid up in the winter. The town is entrenched, with forts of timber, and is said to contain 15 or 16,000 inhabitants, a superior population to that of Quebec. Shelburne, towards the south-west, once contained 600 families; Guisbory about 250. The harbour of Annapolis is excellent; but it is an inconsiderable

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hamlet. There are many forests. The Micmacs, an Indian tribe of about 800 fighters, dwell to the east of Halifax. Supplies of grain are sent from Britain; from whence also are exported to these provinces linen and woollen cloths, and other articles, to the amount of about 80,000*l*.: and the returns are timber and fish worth about 80,000*l*. The chief fishery is that of cod, near the cape Sable coast. Near cape Canco there are remarkable cliffs of white gypsum. About 23 leagues from the cape is the *isle de Sable*, or of Sand, consisting wholly of that substance, mixed with white transparent stones, the hills being milk-white cones, and some 146 feet above the sea. This strange isle has ponds of fresh water; with junipers, blueberries, and cranberries, and some grass and vetches, which serve to support a few horses, cows, and hogs. The bay of Fundy presents an infinite variety of picturesque and sublime scenery; and the bore rises to the height of 70 feet.

ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON.

THIS island is attached to the province of Lower Canada, though divided from Nova Scotia only by a strait of one mile in breadth. It is about 100 miles in length; and, according to the French authors, was discovered at a very early period, about A. D. 1500, by the Normans and Bretons, who navigated these seas; and, being supposed a part of the continent, was called Cape Breton, a name absurdly retained. They did not, however, take possession of it till 1713, when they erected fort Dauphin: the harbour being found difficult, Louisburg was built in 1720, the settlers being chiefly from Europe, as the Acadians, or French of Nova Scotia, did not choose to leave that country. In 1745, Cape Breton was taken by some troops from New England, and has since re-

mained subject to the British crown. The climate is cold and foggy, not only from the proximity of Newfoundland, but from numerous lakes and forests. The soil is chiefly mere moss, and has been found unfit for agriculture. The chief towns are Sidney and Louisburg; the whole inhabitants of the isle do not exceed 1000. The fur trade is inconsiderable, but the fishery very important, this island being esteemed the chief seat; and the value of this trade, while in the French possession, was computed at a million sterling. There is a very extensive bed of coal in this island, in a horizontal direction, not more than six or eight feet below the surface; but it has been chiefly used as ballast: in one of the pits a fire was kindled by accident, and remains unextinguished.

The island of St. John is at no great distance to the west of Cape Breton, being about 60 miles in length by 30 in breadth, and is attached to the province of Nova Scotia. The French inhabitants, about 4000, surrendered, with Cape Breton, in 1745. It is said to be fertile, with several streams. A lieutenant-governor resides at Charlotte town; and the inhabitants of the island are computed at 5000.

PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.

THIS island is situated in the gulf of St. Lawrence, near the coast of Nova Scotia. It is about 120 miles long, and much intersected by arms of the sea, along which is a thinly scattered population, estimated at about 7 or 8000. The lands of this island were granted in the year 1767, in several large lots, of which a great proportion fell into the hands of persons who entirely neglected their improvement. This place has lately attracted much attention from the patriotic exertions of the earl of Selkirk, who, in order to turn the current of

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emigration from the Highlands of Scotland to the United States, conceived the plan of forming a settlement here, where the Highlanders might continue their old customs, and enjoy all the pleasures that arise from the proud spirit of clanship. About 800 of these people, accordingly, reached the island August, 1808, under the superintendence of this young nobleman. Each settler was allowed, at a moderate price, from 50 to 100 acres. This colony has not disappointed the expectations of the founder, and seems to promise a desirable retreat to the superfluous population in the Highlands, and also to constitute a valuable barrier to the British possessions in America.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

THIS island was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1496, who also founded the prior claim of England to the North American shores as far south as Florida. This discovery, like that of Columbus and others, was unintentional, the design being merely to penetrate to the East Indies. Those authors who wonder that no colonists were sent, only shew their ignorance of the intentions of the first navigators; as at that period there was not one man in Europe who could have formed the smallest idea of the benefits of a colony. It was the success of the Spanish colonies, allured by gold alone, that, towards the end of the sixteenth century, enlarged the ideas of mankind; but, even then, Raleigh's transcendent mind held out gold to all his followers, as the sole inducement. The island of Newfoundland is about 320 miles in length and breadth, the shape approaching to a triangle. It seems to be rather hilly than mountainous, with woods of birch, small pine, and fir; yet on the south-west side there are lofty head-lands. The country

has scarcely been penetrated above 30 miles; but there are numerous ponds and morasses, with some dry barrens. The great fishery on the banks of Newfoundland begins about the 10th of May, and continues till the end of September. The cod is either dried for the Mediterranean; or what are called mud-fish, barrelled up in a pickle of salt, for the English market. These banks and the island are environed with constant fog, or snow and sleet; the former supposed by some to be occasioned by the superior warmth of the gulf stream from the West Indies. The fishery is computed to yield about 300,000*l*. a year, from the cod sold in the catholic countries. The island of Newfoundland, after many disputes with the French, was ceded to England 1713, the French having permission to dry their nets on the northern shores; and in 1763 it was stipulated that they might fish in the gulf of St. Lawrence; and the small isles of St. Pierre and Miquelon were ceded to them. The French, by the treaty 1783, were to enjoy their fisheries on the northern and western coasts, the inhabitants of the United States having the same privileges as before their independence; and the preliminaries of October, 1801, confirm the privileges granted to the French.

The chief towns are St. John in the south-east, with Placentia in the south, and Bonavista in the east; but not above 1000 families remain during the winter. In the spring a small squadron is sent to protect the fisheries and settlements, the admiral being also governor of the island, its sole consequence depending on the fishery; and there are two lieutenant-governors, one at St. John's, another at Placentia.

These dreary shores are strongly contrasted by the Bermudas, or Sommer islands, lying almost at an equal distance between Nova Scotia and the West Indies; but as they are nearer to the coast of Carolina than to any other land, it seems more proper to arrange them here than under any other division.

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BERMUDAS, OR SOMMER ISLANDS.

THEY are four in number, and were discovered by the Spaniards under John Bermudez, in 1507; but being afterwards neglected by them, they were again disclosed by the shipwreck of Sir George Sommer in 1609; which event seems to have induced Shakespeare to describe them as ever vexed with storms. Another poet, Waller, who resided there some time, on his being condemned for a plot against the parliament in 1643, describes them in very different colours, as enjoying a perpetual spring. In 1725, the benevolent and eccentric bishop Berkeley proposed to erect a college in these islands for the conversion of the savage Americans! It appears that the largest island, called Bermuda, resembles a hook, the great sound fronting the north. The length is about 35 geographical miles, the breadth seldom two. The other isles are St. George's, St. David's, and Somerset; with several islets, and numerous rocks. The town of St. George contains about 500 houses, built of a soft fire-stone, probably like that of Bath; the inhabitants being about 3000, and those of all the isles perhaps about 9000. There is a governor, council, and general assembly; the religion being that of the church of England. The people are chiefly occupied in building light ships of their cedars, in which they trade to North America and the West Indies. It would appear that these remote isles were uninhabited when settled by the English; but a good history and description of the Bermudas might afford a pleasing addition to the geographical library. Mr. Morse says that the blacks are here twice as numerous as the whites; and that a great part of their trade consists in carrying salt to America. The women are said to be handsome, and both sexes fond of dress, which is perhaps more laudable than the opposite extreme.

REMARKS ON THE SPANISH DOMINIONS IN NORTH AMERICA

NORTH AMERICA.

Extent. THE Spanish dominions in North America are more important, in every respect, than those they hold in the southern half of the new continent. Yet jealousy of the English, and recently of the government of the United States, has long prevented any precise intelligence respecting these regions from appearing. Recourse, therefore, must unavoidably be had to authorities which might, in any other case, be deemed imperfect, dubious, or antiquated.

Of this wide region the chief part is distinguished by the name of Mexico, or New Spain; the provinces, in ascending from the south to the north, being Veragua, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Honduras (with the Mosquito shore claimed by the English), Guatemala and Verapaz, Chiapa, Tabasco, and the peninsula of Yucatan, Guaxaca, Mexico proper, including subdivisions: with New Galicia, Biscay, and Leon. What is called the empire of Mexico was in truth only a moderate kingdom, about 600 miles in length by 140 in breadth. Nay, the republic of Tlascala was within 60 miles of the capital.

The provinces further to the north are Cinaloa and others on the gulf of California, with that large Chersonese itself: New Mexico includes the most northern central settlements on the Rio Bravo.

Climate.—frequent; but by scientific isthmus; but province of months in the heat, which violent storms seems to rise Mexico are, much perspiring on the contrary the dog days and benign, with tificial warmth year under the after mid-day, not unknown, and volcanoes

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Rivers.—The and little remain Spanish North Bravo, called the course of this conjectured, the circuit probably the shores, and waters, have none

Next in course on the east of the about 700 British which flows into called by D'An tyres; but the

Climate.—In California epidemical distempers seem to be frequent; but the country has not been sufficiently examined by scientific observers. Moisture seems to predominate in the isthmus; but not to such a degree as in the South American province of Darien, where it may be said to rain for nine months in the year. The rains, however, temper the extreme heat, which would otherwise predominate in this climate. Violent storms are not unfrequent, and sometimes the lightning seems to rise from the ground. The maritime districts of Mexico are, however, hot and unhealthy, so as to occasion much perspiration even in January. The inland mountains, on the contrary, will sometimes present white frost and ice in the dog days. In other inland provinces the climate is mild and benign, with some momentary snow in winter; but no artificial warmth is found necessary, and animals sleep all the year under the open sky. There are plentiful rains, generally after mid-day, from April till September, and hail-storms are not unknown. Thunder is frequent; and the earthquakes and volcanoes are additional circumstances of terror.

Face of the Country.—The face of the country is rather mountainous than plain, except towards the shores; but the mountains are interspersed with delightful vales, and the soil is generally fertile.

Rivers.—The streams in the isthmus are of a short course, and little remarkable in any respect. The principal river of Spanish North America is, beyond all comparison, the Rio Bravo, called also del Norte, or of the northern star. The course of this important river, so far as its sources can yet be conjectured, may be about 1000 British miles; but its whole circuit probably exceeds that of the Danube. The nature of the shores, and the various appearances and qualities of the waters, have not been illustrated.

Next in consequence would seem to be the Rio Colorado, on the east of the Bravo, whose comparative course may be about 700 British miles. Towards the west is a large river which flows into the Vermillion sea, or gulf of California, also called by D'Anville *Colorado*, with the addition *de los Martires*; but the main stream seems rather to be the *Rio Grande*

de los Apostolos, barbarous appellations imposed by the Jesuits who had settlements in California. The course of this river may be computed at 600 British miles. Among the rivers of the isthmus may be mentioned those of Palmas, of Panuco, Tabasco, Sumasinta, St. Juan, all flowing into the gulf of Mexico. Those which join the Pacific seem mere rivulets; till, in the vicinity of Mexico, the mountains rather tend to the east, and the streams of Yopez, and Zacatula, join the Pacific ocean. That of Guadalajara rises to the west of Mexico; and being considered as passing through the lake of Chapala, will thus join the Pacific after a comparative course of 350 British miles.

Lakes.—The chief lake in Spanish North America, so far as yet explored, is that of Nicaragua, which is about 170 British miles in length, north-west to south-east, and about half that breadth. This grand lake is situated in the province of the same name, towards the south of the isthmus, and has a great outlet, the river of St. Juan, to the gulf of Mexico, while a smaller stream is by some supposed to flow into the Pacific. In the hands of an enterprising people this lake would supply the long wished for passage, from the Atlantic into the Pacific, and in the most direct course that could be desired. Nature has already supplied half the means; and it is probable that a complete passage might have been opened, at half the expence wasted in fruitless expeditions to discover such a passage by the north-west, or the north-east. This speculation must depend on circumstances; but if a passage were once opened, the force of the ocean would probably enlarge it; and a tribute at this new sound would be a considerable source of revenue. Among the more northern lakes, that of Mexico is not only celebrated, but of considerable extent, being, according to the best maps, more than 30 British miles in length, north to south, if the port called Chalco be included. Towards the west in this part, where the isthmus begins to enlarge, there are several lakes, the principal being that of Chapala, which is about 60 British miles in length by 20 in breadth. The north-western parts have been little explored, but probably contain some lakes of considerable extent.

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Mountains.—The whole of the Spanish territories in North America may be regarded as mountainous. The grand chain of the Andes seems to terminate on the west of the gulf of Darien in South America, but by others is supposed to extend to the lake of Nicaragua. Even this extension would totally differ in its direction from the Andean range, as bending north-west, then south-west, then again north-west, so that the main range seems here lost, or passes through the Caribbean sea in the isles of Mosquitos and others towards Jamaica; while the mountains in the south of the isthmus, as far as the lake of Nicaragua, must be regarded as only a branch, declining much in height, till it finally expire at that lake. In this point of view the ranges passing from north to south must be regarded as spurs of the main chain; but as on the one hand orology is confounded by minute and various appellations given to portions of the same range, so it may be equally perplexed by too extensive appellations, which, as in the case of the Taurus of the ancients, can only impart confused and erroneous ideas. The Mexican mountains seem to consist of gneiss, granite, &c., while the grand chain of the Andes has a most peculiar character, being composed of argillaceous schistus. The ridge of Canatagua passes north and south, between the provinces of Veragua and Panama. It is followed in the former province by the range called Urraca, and the volcano of Varu; and by several ridges in Costa Rica.

To the north of the lake of Nicaragua the main ridges often pass east and west; and the Sierra of Yucatan north-east. The chief summit of Nicaragua seems to be the Mamatombo. The volcano of Guatimala raged furiously during the earthquakes which ruined that great city in 1773. In the ancient kingdom of Mexico, which extended from near the lake of Chapala in the north, to Chiapa on the river Tabasco in the south, the summits rise to a great height, as being the central parts of a range wholly unconnected with the Andes. Their direction has not been laid down with care or intelligence, more attention having been paid to the numerous volcanoes, than to other grand features. D'Auteroche observes that the mountain of Orizaba is said to be the highest in Mexico; and

its snowy summit is visible from the capital, a distance of 60 miles. This celebrated mountain is to the south-east of Mexico, not far from the road to Vera Cruz: it became volcanic in 1545, and continued for 20 years; since which time there has been no appearance of inflammation. Though the summit be clothed with perpetual snow, the sides are adorned with beautiful forests of cedars, pines, and other trees. The detached mountains called by the Mexicans Popocatepec, and Ixtaccihuatl, are also to the south-east of the capital, at about 80 miles distance, being both volcanic. The crater of the former is said to be half a mile wide, and celebrated for ancient eruptions. Both are covered with perpetual snow. There are many other volcanoes in this singular province; while others are only remarkable for height, as the mountain of Tlascala, the Tentzon, Tolocam, and others; the range now extending in a north-west direction towards Cinaloa, and being called the Sierra Mada, or Mother range, and the Shining mountains. It is afterwards, according to the best maps, joined by a ridge running north-west from Louisiana; and after this junction passes through the north-west to the proximity of the arctic ocean, while the centre of North America consists of extensive and fertile plains.

The construction of the Mexican mountains has not been examined by any geologist. Among the substances basalt seems clearly indicated; and some others will be mentioned in the mineralogy. There are numerous forests on the sides of the mountains; and the peninsula of Yucatan is particularly abundant in logwood trees.

Botany and Zoology.—Our information respecting the vegetable productions of Mexico is very imperfect. It, however, produces several native plants of great value; among which may be mentioned a species of Indian fig upon which the cochineal insect delights to feed, the true jalap, and the two trees that yield the fragrant gum resins known in commerce by the names of balsam of Capavi and Tolu. The shores of the bays of Honduras and Campechy have been celebrated from their very first discovery for their immense forests of mahogany and logwood; and the neighbourhood of Guatimala is distinguished

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for its indigo. The guayacum, the sassafras and tamarind, the cocoon nut palm, the chocolate nut tree, and a variety of others, which are better known as natives of the West Indian islands, enrich and adorn these fertile provinces. The pine apple grows wild in the woods, and the shallow rocky soils are inhabited by the various species of aloe and euphorbia. A few Mexican plants have been introduced into European gardens, among which may be noticed the *salvia fulgens*, glowing with its crimson blossoms, the splendid dahlia, the elegant striated *sisyrinchium*, the gigantic *helianthus*, and the delicate *mentzelia*.

Among the most singular animals is the Mexican or hunchback dog, a kind of porcupine, and some others described by several naturalists. What is called the tiger seems a species of panther, and sometimes grows to a great size, though Buffon, ever fond of theory, assert that American animals are generally small. In South America it attains the length of a large ox, as appears from the testimony of Dobrizhoffer; but Clavigero says that the largest quadruped is the danta, anta, or tapir, about the size of a middling mule, being amphibious. The bison is found in New Mexico; and the musk cattle may perhaps extend as far. In California there are said to be wild sheep. The birds of New Spain are particularly numerous and curious.

Mineralogy.—The mineralogy of the Spanish empire in North America is equal, if not superior, to that of Peru, and the other southern provinces. Even in the northern parts nature has disclosed her treasures: there is abundance of gold found in the province of Sonora; and California is supposed to contain rich minerals. The silver mines in New Spain, though they do not contend with Potosi, have long maintained great celebrity. Those of Socotecas, or Zacatecas, are particularly distinguished. The produce of the Mexican mines has by some been computed at ten millions yearly; but the whole amount of the American mines probably does not exceed seven millions and a half; of which it cannot be supposed that North America produces more than two-thirds. The ancient Mexicans found gold in many of their rivers; and silver was dug up, but little esteemed. The chief silver mines

are now to the north-west of the capital, where there is a town called Luis de Potosi, more than 200 British miles from Mexico. These mines are said to have been discovered soon after those of Potosi, 1545: they are in a considerable range of mountains, which give source to the river of Panuco. Concerning the nature of these mines, and the manner of working them, the Spanish writers seem to be silent.

Copper is said to abound in some districts to the west of the capital, and tin is also mentioned among the Mexican minerals. Mercury is likewise reported to have been found in Mexico, and there was a celebrated mine in Peru; but both seem to be now exhausted, as the chief supply is from Spain. Amber and asphalt likewise occur in New Spain: and among the precious stones a few diamonds, with amethysts and turquoises, but the list is imperfect, and perhaps erroneous. The mountains also produce jasper, marble, alabaster, magnet, steatite, jad, talc. The stone called *tetzontli*, red and porous, was used in building, being perhaps a kind of tufa. The *itsli* is semi-transparent, of a glassy substance, and generally black, but also found white and blue: it was used in mirrors, and also for sharp instruments, being the same called *pietra del Galinazzo* in South America, the obsidian or volcanic glass of modern mineralogy.

There are several mineral waters of various qualities, sulphureous, vitriolic, and aluminous; and some springs of great heat; but none seem particularly distinguished.

Natural Curiosities.—Besides the volcanoes, there are many natural curiosities, one of the most remarkable being the Ponte de Dios, or Bridge of God, resembling the natural bridge in the territory of the United States. It is about 100 miles south-east from Mexico, near the village of Molcaxac, over a deep river called the Aquetoyaque, and is constantly passed as a highway; but it seems uncertain whether the river have worn the passage through a rocky mountain, or the fragment be part of a fallen hill detached by an earthquake. There are many romantic cataracts, among which must be mentioned those of the river Guadalaxara, between the city of the same name and the lake of Chapala. The floating gardens in the

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lake of Mexico were artificial curiosities, the bottom being formed of interwisted willows.

Population.—The population of all the Spanish provinces of North America, exclusive of Florida and Louisiana, has been estimated at about six millions; of whom the natives, called Indians, are supposed to amount to three millions; and the Spaniards and inhabitants of mixed races are computed at other three, of which the Spaniards may constitute one-third. The small-pox is remarkably fatal; and the black vomit, which is allied to the yellow fever of the United States, acts at intervals with the ravages of a pestilence. The number of priests, monks, and nuns, is also injurious to population, which, however, appears upon the whole to have greatly increased.

The population of America, before the European conquest, appears to have been greatly exaggerated, as usual in every case of the like nature; and from rough calculations, offered even by classical authors, perhaps four-fifths may be always deducted. That this is the case at least with the discoverers of new countries, may be judged from our own enlightened times, in which the English voyagers to Otaheite supposed the inhabitants to exceed 100,000, when, upon actual enumeration, there were found little more than 16,000. It is probable that when America was discovered, the whole population, including the West Indies, did not exceed four millions. Besides the usual mistakes, there was an additional source of exaggeration, as the Spanish conquerors, like knights-errant, counted hundreds by thousands; and the oriental vein of hyperbole, introduced by the Moors, has tainted the early Spanish authors. If we allow that a hundred or two of Europeans could subvert a mighty American empire, we must imagine that its armies were small, as well as cowardly and unskilful.

Manners and Customs.—For hospitality, generosity, docility, and sobriety, the people of New Spain exceed any nation perhaps on the globe: but in national energy or patriotism, enterprise of character, and independence of soul, they are perhaps the most deficient. Yet there are men who have displayed bravery to a surprising degree; and the Europeans

who are there, cherish with delight the idea of their gallant ancestry. Their women have black eyes and hair, fine teeth, and are generally brunettes. They are all inclining a little to *en-bon-point*, but none, or few, are elegant figures. Their dresses are generally short jackets and petticoats, and high-heeled shoes, without any head-dress; over this they have a silk wrapper which they always wear, and when in the presence of men affect to bring it over their faces; but near the Atlantic and the frontiers of the United States, there are several ladies who wear the gowns used in France and England, which they conceive to be more elegant than their ancient costume. The lower class of the men are generally dressed in broad brimmed hats, short coats, large waistcoats and small clothes, always open at the knees, owing to the greater freedom it gives to the limbs on horseback, a kind of leather boot or wrapper bound round the leg. The boot is of a soft pliable leather, but not coloured. In the eastern provinces the dragoons wear over this wrapper a sort of jack-boot made of seal leather, to which are fastened the spurs by a rivet, the gaffs of which are sometimes near an inch in length. But the spurs of the gentlemen and officers, although clumsy to our ideas, are frequently ornamented with raised silver work on the shoulders, and the strap embroidered with silver and gold thread. They are always ready to mount their horses, on which the inhabitants of the internal provinces spend nearly half the day. This description will apply generally for the dress of all the men of the provinces for the lower class; but in the towns, amongst the more fashionable ranks, they dress after the European or United States mode, with not more distinction than we see in our cities from one six months to another. Both men and women have remarkably fine hair, and pride themselves in the display of it.

Their amusements are music, singing, dancing, and gambling: the latter is strictly prohibited, but the prohibition is not much attended to. The dance of — is performed by one man and two women, who beat time to the music, which is soft and voluptuous, but sometimes changes to a lively gay air, while the dancers occasionally exhibit the most indelicate

gestures. A stranger with beings, but improved w danced in v danced by th the guitar, dance, acco having alwa generally of every lady to

Their gam fighting, the travagant ler suma. At e the ladies an ways on the have fine voic whole compa ladies play o their voices. or loll on a them to grea will sometime soon demand ing and drink the morning twelve you d after which y elegant demer songs, and re done by rich and doors are of midnight r wash, and dre About eleven take any, exc sugar.

gestures. The whole of this dance is calculated to impress a stranger with the idea of an insulated society of once civilised beings, but now degenerated into a medium state, between the improved world and the children of nature. The fandango is danced in various figures and numbers. The minuet is still danced by the superior class only. The music made use of is the guitar, violin, and singers, who, in the first described dance, accompany the music with their hands and voices, having always some words adapted to the music, which are generally of such a tendency as would, in Europe, occasion every lady to leave the room.

Their games are cards, billiards, horse-racing, and cock-fighting, the first and last of which are carried to the most extravagant lengths, the parties losing and winning immense sums. At every town of consequence is a public walk, where the ladies and gentlemen meet and sing songs, which are always on the subject of love, or the social board. The females have fine voices, and sing in French, Italian, and Spanish, the whole company joining in the chorus. In their houses the ladies play on the guitar, and generally accompany it with their voices. They either sit down on the carpet cross-legged, or loll on a sofa. To sit upright in a chair appears to put them to great inconvenience; and although the better class will sometimes do it on the first introduction of strangers, they soon demand liberty to follow their old habits. In their eating and drinking they are remarkably temperate. Early in the morning you receive a dish of chocolate and a cake; at twelve you dine on several dishes of meat, fowls, and fish; after which you have a variety of confectionary, and indeed an elegant dessert: then drink a few glasses of wine, sing a few songs, and retire to take the siesta, or afternoon nap, which is done by rich and poor; and about two o'clock the windows and doors are all closed, the streets deserted, and the stillness of midnight reigns throughout. About four o'clock they rise, wash, and dress, and prepare for the dissipation of the night. About eleven o'clock some refreshments are offered, but few take any, except a little wine and water, and a little candied sugar.

The government have multiplied the difficulties for Europeans mixing with the Creoles, or Mestizos, to such a degree, that it is difficult for a marriage to take place. An officer wishing to marry a lady not from Europe, is obliged to acquire certificates of the purity of her descent for 200 years back, and transmit them to the court, when the license will be returned; but should she be the daughter of a person of the rank of captain or upwards, this nicety vanishes, as their rank purifies the blood of the descendants.

The general subjects of the conversation of the men are women, money, and horses, which appear to be the only objects, in their estimation, worthy of consideration. Having united the female sex with their money and their beasts, and treated them too much after the manner of the latter, they have eradicated from their breasts every sentiment of virtue, or of ambition to pursue the acquirements which would make them amiable companions, instructive mothers, or respectable members of society. Their whole souls, with a few exceptions, like the Turkish ladies, are taken up in music, dress, and the little blaspheims of voluptuous dissipation. Finding that the men only require these as objects of gratification to the sensual passions, they have lost every idea of the feast of reason and the flow of soul which arise from the intercourse of two refined and virtuous minds, whose inmost thoughts are open to the inspection and admiration of each other, and whose refinements of sentiment heighten the pleasures of every gratification.

Such is the character of the Spaniards in North America, as given by a recent traveller in that country. Those of the ancient Mexicans have been described by many authors, but a few singularities may be here mentioned. A peculiar feature of the Mexican language was, that a termination indicating respect might be added to every word. Thus, in speaking to an equal, the word *father* was *tati*, but to a superior *tatin*. They had also reverential verbs, as appears from Aldama's Mexican grammar. Thus, as cowards are always cruel, the most ferocious people in the world were at the same time also the most servile and obsequious. Their wars were constant

and sanguine with this being themselves dancing the and a such paintings it an ornament have observed was divided five days. They cultivated was rude, and the death of sacrificed.

Language. Dictionaries have few specimens to differ radically end in it; and the length, the vages in North but strongly polished, as Clavigero, the r, and s; in author, it strikes the latter, instead of enunciation pleasing language of extreme length pares the Mexican as he to Herodotus. Their amatory ballads the specimen prior to those of Education. Spanish settlers

and sanguinary; and their manners, in general, corresponded with this barbarous disposition: the principal warriors covering themselves with the skins of the sacrificed victims, and dancing through the streets. The dress was a loose cloak, and a sash girt round the naked waist. From the ancient paintings it appears that the under lip was pierced to receive an ornament of gold. This custom La Perouse and others have observed on the north-west coast of America. The year was divided into eighteen months, each of twenty days; and five days were added, which were dedicated to festivity. They cultivated maize and some roots; but their agriculture was rude, and they were strangers to the use of money. On the death of a chief, a great number of his attendants were sacrificed.

Language.—Of the Mexican language grammar and dictionaries have been published in the country; and from the few specimens contained in European publications, it appears to differ radically from the Peruvian. The words frequently end in *tl*; and are besides of a surprising and unpronounceable length, resembling in this respect the language of the savages in North America, and some of the African dialects; but strongly contrasted with those of Asia, in which the most polished, as the Chinese, are monosyllabic. According to Clavigero, the Mexican tongue wants the consonants *b*, *t*, *f*, *g*, *r*, and *s*; in which respect only, though unobserved by that author, it strictly coincides with the Peruvian; except that the latter, instead of the *s*, is said to want the *x*, a mere difference of enunciation. But the Peruvian is a far superior and more pleasing language, though some modifications of the verbs be of extreme length. The wild enthusiasm of Clavigero compares the Mexican with the Latin and Greek; though as like as he to Herodotus. Some of the words are of sixteen syllables. Their poetry consisted of hymns, and of heroic and amatory ballads. They had also a kind of dramas; but from the specimen produced, they do not seem to have been superior to those of Otaheite.

Education.—There are several laudable institutions in the Spanish settlements for the education of the natives, and some

colleges or universities; but the fanatical spirit of the instructors renders such foundations of little value.

Cities.—The chief city of New Spain, and all Spanish America, is *Mexico*, celebrated for the singularity of its situation. In a beautiful vale surrounded with mountains the lake of Texcoco is joined to the south to that of Chalco by a strait, on the west side of a tongue of land, the whole circuit of these lakes being about 90 miles. In a small isle to the north of this junction, and upon the west side of Texcoco, rose the old city of Mexico, accessible by several causeways raised in the shallow waters; but on the east side there was no communication except by canoes. It is said by Robertson, from recent Spanish documents, to contain 150,000 inhabitants; of which probably a third part is Spanish. The most recent account of this remarkable city seems to be that given by Chappe D'Au-terroche, who visited it in 1769, and informs us that it is built upon a fen, near the banks of a lake, and crossed by numerous canals, the houses being all founded on piles. Hence it would seem that the waters of the lake have diminished, so as to leave a fenny access on the west. The ground still yields in many places; and some buildings, as the cathedral, have sunk six feet. The streets are wide and straight, but very dirty; and the houses, resembling those in Spain, are tolerably built. The chief edifice is the viceroy's palace, which stands near the cathedral in a central square, but is rather solid than elegant. Behind the palace is the mint, in which more than a hundred workmen are employed, as the owners of the mines here exchange their bullion for coin. The other chief buildings are the churches, chapels, and convents, which are very numerous, and richly ornamented. The outside of the cathedral is unfinished, as they doubt the foundations; but the rail round the high altar is of solid silver, and there is a silver lamp so capacious that three men can get in to clean it; while it is also enriched with lions' heads, and other ornaments, in pure gold. The images of the virgin, and other saints, are either solid silver, or covered with gold and precious stones. Besides the great central square, there are two others, each with a fountain in the middle. 'To the north of the town,' says the writer

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above mentioned, near the suburbs, is the public walk, or *Alameda*. A rivulet runs all round it, and forms a pretty large square, with a basin and *jet d'eau* in the middle. Eight walks, with each two rows of trees, terminate at this basin, like a star; but as the soil of Mexico is unfit for trees, they are not in a very thriving condition. This is the only walk in or near to Mexico; all the country about it is swampy ground, and full of canals. A few paces off, and facing the *Alameda*, is the *Quemadero*; that is the place where they burn the Jews, and other unhappy victims of the awful tribunal of inquisition. The *Quemadero* is an enclosure between four walls, and filled with ovens, into which are thrown over the walls the poor wretches who are condemned to be burnt alive; condemned by judges professing a religion whose first precept is charity. The Spanish inhabitants are commonly clothed in silk, their hats being adorned with belts of gold and roses of diamonds; for even the slaves have bracelets and necklaces of gold, silver, pearls, and gems. The ladies are distinguished for beauty and gallantry. Mexico, though inland, is the seat of vast commerce between Vera Cruz on the east, and Acapulco on the west; and the shops display a profusion of gold, silver, and jewels. In magnificent regularity it yields to few cities even on the ancient continent. Gage, whose authority is used by the most recent writers of all countries in the defect of other materials, says that in his time, 1640, there were supposed to be 15,000 coaches, some of them adorned with gold and gems; the people being so rich that it was supposed that one half of the families kept equipages.

Santa Fe, the capital of New Mexico, is situated on a small stream which empties into the Rio del Norte, on the eastern side, at the foot of the mountains which divide the waters of that river from the Arkansaw and Red rivers of the Mississippi, in 36 deg. north lat. and 109 deg. west long. It is of a long rectangular form, extending about one mile from east to west on the banks of the creek. In the centre is the public square, one side of which forms the flank of the soldiers' square, which is closed, and in some degree defended by round towers in the angles which flank the curtains; another

side of the square is formed by the palace of the governor, his guard houses, &c.; another is occupied by the priests and their suite; and the fourth by the chapitones, who reside in the city. The houses are generally only one story high, with flat roofs, and have a very mean appearance on the outside; but some of them are richly furnished, especially with plate. The population is estimated at 3600.

Acapulco was a celebrated port on the south of Mexico, engrossing the chief Indian trade over the Pacific; while *Carthagena*, in South America, on the Caribbean sea, was a centre of European traffic. Both were in unhealthy situations, as Mexico itself; for, by a fatal error, the Spaniards, Dutch, and other Europeans, have in Asia and America founded cities on plains, in imitation of those in their own countries, while high situations ought to have been selected.

Mexico is a fair commercial town; and *Merida*, the capital of the peninsula of Yucatan, is a bishopric, and the residence of the governor of the province. Old *Vera Cruz* was burnt by the buccaneers, and a more advantageous position selected for the new city. It contains one church and three monasteries, and is enclosed with ruinous fortifications: lying to the south-east of Mexico, and the common port for European goods, where a Spanish fleet used to arrive every two years, taking in return silver and other treasures. On the north are barren sands, and on the west bogs that have been drained. *Guatemala* exports excellent wool and perfumes. *St. Leon* and *Granada* are both situated on the large lake of Nicaragua, where the chain of the Andes is supposed to terminate, even by those who carry its extension to the utmost limit. Even the inferior cities contain, as Robertson observes, a superior population to those of any other European nations in America, that of *Angolos* being computed at 60,000; and of *Guadalupe* 80,000, exclusive of Indians.

Trade, &c.—The trade and commerce of New Spain are carried on with Europe and the United States by the port of *Vera Cruz* solely, and with the East Indies and South America by *Acapulco*, and even then under such restrictions of productions, manufactures, and time, as to render it almost of

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no consequence as to the general prosperity of the country. Were all the numerous bays and harbours of the gulf of Mexico and California opened to the trade of the world, and a general license given to the cultivation of all the productions which the country is capable of yielding, with freedom of exportation and importation, with proper duties on foreign goods, the country would immediately become rich and powerful, a proper stimulus would be held out to the poor to labour, when certain of finding a quick and ready sale for the productions of their plantations or manufactories. The country abounds in iron ore, yet all the iron and steel, and articles of manufactures, are obliged to be brought from Europe, the manufacturing or working of iron being strictly prohibited. This occasions the necessary utensils of husbandry, arms, and tools, to be enormously high, and forms a great check to agriculture, improvement in manufactures, and military skill. The works of the Mexicans in gold, silver, and painting, shew them not to be destitute of genius, which, with cultivation and improvement, might rival the greatest masters of either ancient or modern schools. Their dispositions and habits are peculiarly calculated for sedentary employments; and there is no doubt, if proper establishments were made, they would soon rival, if not surpass, the most extensive woollen, cotton, or silk manufactures of Europe. Their climate is adapted for raising the finest cotton in the world; and their sheep possess all the fineness of wool, for which they are so celebrated in Spain. Besides this, they have immense quantities of raw materials, which they have on hand, wool selling for a mere trifle; and in fact they scarcely take the half from the fleeces of the sheep for the coarse manufactories of the country, and for making beds. New Spain is, in fact, singularly distinguished by the multitude and variety of its productions, in all the three great reigns of nature, animal, vegetable, and mineral; and this abundance of natural productions perhaps contributes to the neglect of manufactures. Even metallurgy is but poorly conducted. Cochineal and cocoa, with a little silk and cotton, form articles of export; but the chief are gold, silver, and

precious stones. There was a celebrated fair at Acapulco, on the annual arrival of the ships from Peru and Chili; after which the noted galleon, laden with the wealth of America, pursued her course to Manilla. Other arrangements are now followed, and smaller vessels employed. The galleons were laid aside in 1746; and the late Spanish monarch instituted commercial regulations on a more liberal plan. In 1764, monthly packets were established between Corunna and Havana, whence smaller vessels pass to Vera Cruz, and to Portobello in South America; and an interchange of productions by these vessels is also permitted. In the following year, the trade to Cuba was laid open to all Spain; and the privilege was afterwards extended to Louisiana, and the provinces of Yucatan and Carapachy. In 1774, free intercourse was permitted between the three viceroyalties of Mexico, Peru, and New Granada. The courts of justice were also reformed, and a fourth viceroyalty was established, 1776, on Rio de la Plata. By a singular policy a free trade is permitted between New Spain and the Philippines, which adds considerably to the wealth of the former country. The English trade in the bay of Honduras may now be considered as terminated, the log-wood on the opposite side of Yucatan being found to be of a superior quality.

Religion.—The religion of the Spanish settlers in these provinces is well known to be the Roman catholic, and of such a sort as greatly to impede industry or prosperity, for it is computed that one-fifth part of the Spaniards consists of ecclesiastics, monks, and nuns; and that country must be miserably defective in which the Jesuits were of distinguished industry. The establishment of the inquisition, and the strange fanaticism of the Spaniards, who disgrace the European name, have not only crushed all spirit of exertion, but have prevented the admixture of other Europeans, whose industry might improve their settlements, and whose courage might defend them.

New Spain is divided into four archbishoprics, viz. Mexico, Guadalajara, Durango, and St. Luis Potosi; under these again are the sub-bishoprics, deacons, curates, &c. each of

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whom is subject and accountable to his immediate chiefs for the districts committed to his charge, and the whole are again subject to the ordinances of the high court of inquisition, held at the capital of Mexico. The salaries of the archbishops, observes a late writer, are superior to those of other officers, that of the bishop of Mexico being estimated at 120,000 dollars per annum, while the viceroy has but 80,000, and 30,000 allowed for his table, falling short of the bishop 20,000 dollars. These incomes are raised entirely from the people; who pay no tax to the king, but give one-tenth of their yearly income to the clergy; besides the fees of confessions, bulls, burials, baptisms, marriages, and a thousand other sources. The inferior clergy being generally Creoles by birth, and always kept in subordinate grades, without the least shadow of a probability of rising to the superior dignities of the church, their minds have been soured to such a degree, that they will probably lead the van whenever the standard of independence is raised in the country.

The religion of the ancient Mexicans appears to have been chiefly founded on fear, the temples being decorated with the figures of destructive animals; and fasts, penances, voluntary wounds, and tortures, formed the essence of their rites. Human sacrifices were deemed the most acceptable; and every captive taken in war was cruelly tortured and sacrificed. The heart and head were the portion of the gods; while the body was resigned to the captor, who, with his friends, feasted upon it. The extinction of such a ferocious people may not be worthy of much regret: but modern philosophy is apt to decide on a slight and imperfect view.

Thus, instead of a benevolent deity, the worship of the Mexicans may be said to have been directed to the evil principle of some oriental nations, whom all their efforts were stretched to appease. In the Mexican language, *Tecotl* was a general term for any divinity; and in obscure theory they believed in a creator, whom they styled *Ipahemoani*, that is, 'He by whom we live:' but their supreme deity was rather that evil spirit called *Klucatecolotl*, or the *rational owl*, whose delight was to injure and terrify. They believed in

the immortality of the soul, and a kind of transmigration; the good being transformed into birds, and the bad into creeping animals. The principal deities were thirteen in number, among whom were the sun and moon; and Tlaloc, the god of water, was the master of paradise; but Mexilti, the god of war, received the chief adoration. There were other gods of the mountains, of commerce, &c.; and the idols, rudely formed of clay, wood, or stone, sometimes decorated with gems and gold, were numerous. One was composed of certain seeds, pasted together with human blood. The priests wore a black cotton mantle, like a veil; and there seem to have been orders of monks, as among the eastern nations of Asia. The austerities and voluntary wounds of the priests, their poisonous ointments, and other abominable rites, even as related by Clavigero, evince that the entire system was the most execrable that has ever appeared on the face of the earth, alike blasphemous to God and pernicious to man. The whole is so totally unlike any system ever practised in any part of Asia, that there is additional cause to believe that the people were either indigenous, or have proceeded from Africa, in which alone (as among the Gíagas) such cruelties may be traced. The Asiatic religions seem universally mild, and even gay, as natural in the worship of a being who is benevolence itself; while in Africa the preponderance of the evil spirit seems to have been acknowledged by many nations.

Government.—The ancient government of Mexico was an hereditary monarchy, tempered, however, by a kind of election not unknown in the barbarous ages of Europe, by which a brother or nephew of the late king was preferred to his sons. Despotism seems to have begun with the celebrated Montezuma. There were several royal councils, and classes of nobility, mostly hereditary. The nobles were styled *pilli*, or *tlatoani*; but the Spaniards introduced the general term of *casik*, which Clavigero says signifies a prince in the language of Hispaniola; but is by some asserted to imply a priest among the Mahometan Malays. Land was not supposed to belong to the monarch, but was alienable by the proprietors. As writing was unknown, there was no code of laws, but Clavigero has pre-

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served some traditions on the subject. Their armour and tactics appear to have been extremely rude.

The Spanish government is vested in the viceroy of Mexico, whose rank and power are far superior to those of Peru, and the new kingdom of Granada. The legal salary of the viceroys of Mexico and Peru is now 40,000 ducats; but the disposal of lucrative offices, monopolies, connivances, presents, &c. sometimes swell them to an enormous amount. The court of the viceroy is formed on the regal model, with horse and foot guards, a grand household, and numerous attendants. In the provinces there are tribunals called Audiences, of which there are eleven for Spanish America; and the Council of the Indies, resident in Spain, controls even the viceroys. Some of the provinces seem to be merely geographic, or ecclesiastic denominations of seas, without any municipal or peculiar jurisdiction; but some have governors appointed by the viceroy. Besides the laws of Spain, there are particular codes and statutes, which are consulted in legal decisions.

The government of these provinces may be termed military, the judgments of the inferior civil officers being subject to a reversion by the military commandants of districts. The ecclesiastics indeed divide the government with the military; but there exists the most perfect understanding between them, and they mutually assist each other in defending and extending their peculiar interests.

Army.—The European troops are of the choicest regiments from Spain. The regular troops of the kingdom, who are in the viceroyalty, acting from the stimulus of ambition and envy, are supposed to be equal to them. The militia with the regular officers are likewise good troops, but are not held in such high estimation as the other corps. These three corps, forming a body of 23,200 men, may be called the regular force of the kingdom, as the militia, which amount to 139,500, would be of no more consequence against the regular troops of any civilized power, than the ancient aborigines of the country were against the army of Cortes. The appearance of the Spanish troops is certainly (at a distance) *a la militaire*. Their lances are fixed to the side of the saddle under the left

thigh, and slant about five feet above the horse; on the right the carbine is slung in a case to the front of the saddle (or pommel) crossways, the breech to the right hand, and on each side of the saddle, behind the rider, is a pistol; below the breech of the carbine is slung the shield, which is made of sole leather, trebled, sewed together with thongs, with a band on the inside, to slip the left arm through; those of the privates are round, and about two feet diameter. The dragoons of the viceroyalty do not make use of the lance or shield, but are armed, equipped, and clothed after the modern manner, as are also the dragoons of the eastern provinces.

Their dress is a short blue coat, with a red cape and cuff without facings, leather or blue cotton velvet small clothes and waistcoat; the small clothes always open at the knees; the wrapping boot, with the jack boot and permanent spurs over it; a broad brimmed high crowned wool hat, with a ribbon round it of various colours, generally received as a present from some female, which they wear as a badge of the favour of the fair sex, and a mark of their gallantry.

Their horses are small and slender limbed, but very agile, and are capable of enduring great fatigue. The equipments of the horses are, to our ideas, awkward, but perhaps superior to the English. Their bridles have a strong curb, which gives them a great mechanical force. The saddle is made after the Persian model, with a high projecting pommel, or, as, anciently termed, bow, and is likewise raised behind; this is merely the tree. It is then covered by two or three coats of carved leather, and embroidered workmanship, some with gold and silver in a very superb manner. The stirrups are of wood closed in front, carved generally in the figure of a lion's head, or some other beast; they are very heavy, and to us present a very clumsy appearance. The horseman, seated on his horse, has a small bag tied behind him, his blankets either under him or lying with his cloak between his body and the bow, which makes him at his ease. Thus mounted it is impossible for the most vicious animals to dismount them. They will catch another horse, when both are running nearly at full speed, with a noose and hair rope, with which they will soon

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choak down the beast they are pursuing. In short, they are probably the most expert horsemen in the world. The discipline of their troops is very different from ours; as to tactics or military manœuvres, they are not held in much estimation. On a march, a detachment of cavalry generally encamp in a circle. Their mode of attack is by squadrons on the different flanks of their enemies, but without regularity or concert, shouting, halloing, and firing their carbines, after which, if they think themselves equal to the enemy, they charge with a pistol and then the lance.

Such was the state of the army of Mexico previous to the invasion of Spain by Bonaparte. Since that period, the army has been completely disorganized, and is now incapable of maintaining the authority of the government. When the present tottering system is destroyed, the military spirit of the Mexicans may revive, and render this fine region respectable amongst nations.

Navy.—The navy is that of the parent country; but there are many guard ships and commercial vessels solely appropriated to the American colonies. Four corvettes of twelve guns, and one goletta, are stationed at Monterey, to supply the presidencies of North California with necessaries. These vessels performed the Spanish expeditions to the north-west coast of America.

Revenue.—The revenue which Mexico yields to the Spanish crown has been shewn by Dr. Robertson to amount to above a million sterling, but there are great expences. By the most recent account the total revenue derived by Spain from America and the Philippines is 2,700,000*l.*; of which one half must be deducted for the extravagant charges of administration. It has been asserted that the king's fifth of the mines of New Spain only was two millions sterling, which would swell the annual produce of the Mexican mines to ten millions. Dr. Robertson shews, from Campomanes, that the whole produce of the American mines is 7,425,000*l.*, of which the king's fifth, if regularly paid, would be 1,485,000*l.*; and it is probable that the mines of New Spain or Mexico, prior to the opulent

discoveries in the north-west provinces, did not yield above one half of the whole amount.

History.—The original population of these extensive regions was various, consisting of Mexicans, and other tribes; considerably civilized in the centre, while to the north and south were savage races. The origin of the Mexicans remains in great obscurity, after the fruitless researches of many ingenious and learned men. Their language appears to be totally different from that of the Peruvians; but the Mexican vocabularies are very imperfect. There seems not, however, to be any resemblance between either of these languages, and that of the Malays, who peopled the numerous islands in the Pacific ocean; nor are the Tartarian, or Mandshur features to be traced in any account of the Mexicans or Peruvians, though singularly distinct from those of other races: yet Dr. Forster, in his history of the voyages of the north, supposes that these kingdoms were founded in the thirteenth century, by the troops contained in some of the ships sent by Kublai Khan from China, to subdue Japan; that great fleet having been scattered, and supposed to have been lost in a severe tempest. But the animals of America are mostly distinct from those of the old continent, and could in no case have descended from them. If it cannot be allowed that the great Creator, in like manner, ordained a distinct race of men for this continent, it will be necessary, before this curious question be determined, to collect vocabularies of the African languages, as there are on that continent several nations of a copper colour, resembling the Americans; and the Mexicans and Peruvians might become more civilized from mere advantages of situation and accident. It is, however, deeply to be regretted that these American empires, or kingdoms, were destroyed; as, not to mention the cause of humanity, they would have afforded curious objects for philosophic observers of human nature. The general opinion seems to be that the Mexicans and Peruvians were a distinct race from the other Americans; and, amidst a variety of conjectures, it might be enquired if they did not proceed from Japan, or be haply of the same race with the

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people of the large island of Tchoka, or Sagalian, whose features, as delineated by La Perouse and the literary men who accompanied him, bear no resemblance to the Tartaric. In this case, we may conceive that they are remains of a people in eastern Asia, who were expelled by the Mandshurs, on their progress from more western settlements.

The historical epochs of Mexico have been of little moment since it was conquered by the Spaniards in 1521, when the last monarch Guatimozin perished, Montezuma having died in the preceding year. According to the Mexican traditions, their ancestors consisted of several savage tribes, who about the tenth or eleventh century of the Christian era moved in successive migrations from unknown regions towards the north and north-west, and settled in Anahuac. About the beginning of the thirteenth century, a tribe, more polished than the rest, advanced from the borders of the Californian gulf, and took possession of the plains adjacent to the great lake near the centre of the country. They were for a time governed by chiefs or judges, till the territories becoming more extensive, the supreme authority centred at last in a single person. Even from the most extensive accounts the monarchical government had not lasted above 197 years; that is, it commenced about A. D. 1324, the first monarch being Acamapitzin. Wars and rebellions, famines and inundations, constitute the chief features of Mexican history; and the Spanish government presents few events of moment, the natives being confined between the two seas, and more easily checked than in South America, where there is a wide extent of territory for retreat and conspiracy.

The extensive peninsula of California was discovered by Cortez in 1536, but was so completely neglected, that in most charts it was represented as an island. The Jesuits afterwards explored this province, and acquired a dominion there as complete as in Paraguay. On their expulsion in 1766, it was found to be a not unfertile region, with some mines of gold and a valuable pearl fishery. The countries of Cinaloa and Sonora, on the east side of the Vermillion sea or gulf of California, as well as the immense provinces of New Navarre, and others of New Mexico, never were subject to the Mexican

ceptre, but now acknowledge the power of Spain, though the settlers be few. In 1765, a war broke out with the savages, which ended in their submission, 1771. During their marches the Spaniards discovered at Cineguilla, in the province of Sonora, a plain of fourteen leagues in extent, in which vast quantities of gold were found in large lumps, at the depth of only sixteen inches. Before the end of the year 1771, above 2000 persons were settled at Cineguilla; and other mines, not inferior in wealth, have been discovered in other parts of Sonora and Cinaloa. It is probable that these discoveries have instigated other settlements in the northern parts of New Spain, and in New Mexico. These colonizations, and the settlement of Santa Fe, and others in that vicinity, are important events in the history of the Spanish territories. It is, however, to be lamented, that the progress of these settlements has not been explained with more care and accuracy, for no small obscurity attends their chronology.

The Mexicans have long evinced a disposition for independence. In 1624, they made a feeble attempt at a revolution. In 1797, they proclaimed the count de Galves king of Mexico, in the streets of the capital, and 190,000 souls were heard proclaiming, 'Long live Galves, king of Mexico.' It was then only for him to have *willed it*, and the kingdom of Mexico was lost to Charles IV. for ever. But preferring his loyalty to his ambition, he rode out to the mob, attended by his guards, with his sword in hand, crying out, 'Long live his catholic majesty Charles the fourth,' and threatening to put to instant death, with his own hand, any persons who refused immediately to retire to their houses. This dispersed the people. In another quarter of the kingdom an immense number had collected and proclaimed him king: he sent 10,000 men against them, dispersed them, and had four beheaded. These firm measures saved the country at that period. Galves received the greatest honours from the court of Spain, but was poisoned in a short time after, fulfilling the maxim, 'That it is dangerous to serve jealous tyrants.'

The news of the overthrow of the Spanish monarchy by Bonaparte was received in Mexico with great indignation; and

the inhabitants about 700,000. But as most of the country was by the creation of the dread of the Spanish cent. In the year 1808, the Spanish rested and de other party e rity: but wh stance, with

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the inhabitants of the city of Mexico in eleven days, subscribed about 700,000*l*, to aid their patriotic brethren in Europe. But as most of the high offices in Spanish America were filled by the creatures of the Prince of Peace, a tool of Bonaparte's, the dread of French influence and intrigue in many places produced a civil war: nor did the impolitic conduct of the Spanish central junta tend to reconcile the enraged colonists. In the year 1808, the viceroy of Mexico, Harungary, was arrested and deposed by one party of the inhabitants; while the other party espoused and endeavoured to support his authority: but what is very strange, the junta took part, in this instance, with the insurgents.

Mexico had felt long and severely the impolitic and unjust measures of Spain; she had been inundated by men sent from thence, in order to retrieve or make their fortunes by the plunder and oppression of the colonists. The creoles were neglected; and, as if neglect were not enough to irritate and alienate them, their hopes and expectations were repeatedly raised by the Spanish government, and then dashed to the ground. Had the Spanish government been actually desirous of disgusting and separating the Mexicans entirely from the mother country, they could not have done it more effectually than by the whole tenour of the conduct they adopted.

While things were in this critical state, an insurrection broke out, in September, 1810, at Dolores, a town in the province of Guanaxueato, in the middle of the mining district of Mexico. This insurrection was begun, spread, and headed principally by the priests; afterwards several lawyers and military officers joined it; and the latter brought over some regiments of the militia. This insurrection spread rapidly and widely: in a short time more than half the province was overrun by the insurgents or had joined them. Upwards of 40,000 men were in arms; and though they were repeatedly defeated, they constantly rallied and appeared with undiminished force.

In the month of November they advanced with great confidence, and in great force, against the city of Mexico itself: they had previously taken the populous town of Guanaxueato.

and been received as friends by the inhabitants of Valladolid. Their expectations of gaining possession of Mexico arose more from the power and intrigues of the partizans within the city than the force of their army. But in these expectations they were mistaken; for while affairs were in this precarious state, Venegas arrived from Spain, as viceroy of Mexico. He was a man peculiarly fitted for the management of the government at this period; for he was possessed in an eminent degree of activity, firmness, and energy. He soon detected the partizans of the insurgents within the city of Mexico: he watched all their movements: he thwarted all their measures; so that they had no opportunity to be of the least service to the army that was advancing against the city. At this period, too, the influence of superstition was called in; the archbishop threatened to excommunicate all who had joined the insurgents, if they did not immediately desert them: this kept back their partizans within the city, and even thinned the ranks of their army. Venegas, however, did not depend entirely upon these measures; he collected as many troops as he could; and, by his masterly dispositions, succeeded in baffling all the movements of the insurgents, whom he drove before him, and greatly weakened as well as dispirited their troops. At length in March, 1811, the principal leaders of the insurrection, their army being greatly reduced by defeat and desertion, were surprised at Saltillo. Notwithstanding all these disasters, the spirit still existed, for within a very short period of the battle of Saltillo, a body of 12,000 insurgents were collected near Queretaro, and again defeated.

It would appear that Venegas used his victories with great cruelty: he inflicted the most severe and barbarous punishments upon such of the insurgents as fell into his hands. Indeed the civil war in Mexico was attended with greater slaughter and cruelty than in other parts of Spanish America: in this province the jealousy and hatred existing between the Europeans and creoles is very great; and when this jealousy and hatred was increased, and found room and opportunity to operate without restraint during the civil commotions, it may easily be supposed that their effects would be dreadful in the

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extreme. The country was laid waste: every thing was destroyed that could be destroyed: houses, plantations, and even the miners suffered; so that even if tranquillity were restored, of which though the prospect is more likely, it is still very distant and uncertain, many years must elapse, much labour and capital must be expended, before the country will resume its former condition, or the inhabitants be restored to their former wealth and comforts. The destruction of the mines is principally to be deplored: it must necessarily require a great outlay of money before they can be put into a condition again to be wrought with ease, advantage, and profit; and they will be unproductive at the very time when the mother country stands most in need of their wealth.

But notwithstanding the cruelty and activity of the Spanish officers, the spirit of the people was not subdued. They again took arms, and appeared in the field against the old Spanish troops, which they defeated in several rencontres. In 1816, they became complete masters of the province of Valladolid, and summoned a *junto*, or assembly of the representatives of the people. They, however, were greatly in want of arms, and the ports on the gulf of Mexico were held by the royal troops. Several enterprising individuals in the western states of the Union associated together, and formed a rifle corps to assist the independents; but before they could arrive at the scene of action, the patriots were overpowered, and their armies dispersed. Still the determination to oppose the imbecile and tyrannical sway of the despicable Ferdinand continues to operate, and large bodies of men are yet traversing this fine and fertile country, defying all attempts to reduce them to subjection, and offering a point of union for all the resolute and dissatisfied that chuse to join them. But our accounts from this country are extremely meagre and unsatisfactory, and such as cannot afford any proper materials for an historical detail.

The situation of this opulent empire has, no doubt, occupied the attention of different governments; but the critical state of affairs, both in Europe and America, has prevented the adoption of any measures which might throw the riches of

Mexico into their power. Captain Pike, an American, who was sent in 1807 by his government to explore Louisiana, was arrested by the Spaniards, and conveyed into New Spain, an account of which he published on his return. In his remarks on the political situation of the Mexican dominions, he observes, that the conduct of England, in her late descent at La Plata, has induced the Mexicans to turn their views for assistance to other quarters. 'They have,' he proceeds, 'directed their eyes towards the United States, as brethren of the same soil in their vicinity; who have within their power ample resources of arms, ammunition, and even men, to assist in securing their independence; and who in that event would secure to themselves the almost exclusive trade of the richest country in the world for centuries, and to be her carriers as long as the two nations exist. For Mexico, like China, will never become a nation of mariners, but must receive the ships of all the world into her ports, and give her bullion in exchange for the productions of their different countries. What would not be the advantages the United States would reap from this event? Our numerous vessels would fill every port, and from our vicinity enable us to carry off at least nine-tenths of her commerce. Even on the coast of the Pacific no European nation could vie with us: there would also be a brisk inland trade carried on with the southern provinces by the Red river; and having a free entrance into all their ports, we should become their factors, agents, guardians, and, in short, their tutelar genius; as the country fears but hates France and all French men and measures. It therefore remains for the government of the United States to decide, whether they will hold out a helping hand, to emancipate another portion of the western hemisphere from the bonds of European tyranny and oppression, or by a different policy suffer 600,000 people to become, in the hands of French intrigue, enterprise, and tactics, a scourge to our south-western boundaries, which would oblige us to keep up a large and respectable military force, and continually render us liable to a war, on the weakest and most vulnerable part of our frontiers.'

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Such are the opinions of an American writer, though they do not coincide with the present politics of the United States. Mr. Cobbett has also addressed a memorial to the prince regent of England, pointing out the advantages which would result from the Mexicans conquering their independence, and the ease with which it might be accomplished with the assistance of England. Such views, however, under existing circumstances, are quite inadmissible.

If the affairs of Spain were conducted upon the principles of wisdom and sound policy, the emancipation of Mexico would be instantly and voluntarily declared, for which an annual tribute might be procured even more considerable than the present revenue. The resources of this rich and extensive country are in a great measure absorbed by useless offices and emoluments, and the extortions of powerful individuals; and the remainder is swallowed up by vast bodies of priests, who, in return, endeavour to amuse and stupify the people by religious processions, festivals, and a variety of holy mummeries. The march of knowledge is, however, though gradual, sure and irresistible, and the people are beginning to perceive the nature of their rights and duties. Their attempts to conquer their political independence will not, in the present state of things, be easily repressed. The success of the patriots in South America will be a sure prelude to their own triumph. Were they to remain subject to the creature which at present rules in Spain, it is probable that they would ultimately be compelled to receive the law from their more politic, courageous, and enterprising neighbours, the inhabitants of the States.

SOUTH AMERICA.

THIS vast continent has now become an object of peculiar interest, and the theatre of the most gallant achievements. We will first take a view of the natural and civil state of its various divisions, and then describe the different governments into which it is now divided, with the efforts making to promote the general cause against Spain.

SPANISH DOMINIONS.

Extent and Boundaries. **THE** possessions of Spain in the southern part of America, are of prodigious extent, from the Caribbean sea to the most southern promontory, according to the Spanish geographers; but the English maps seem justly to regard the regions to the south-east, inhabited by the Tehuels and other tribes confessedly independent, as excluded from the Spanish domain. In this point of view, the eastern shore, from the south of the

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great river Parana, is open to the settlements of any foreign nation; and on the west the Spanish boundary ends at the gulf of Chonos, south lat. 44 deg. The remaining length may be 8360 geographical miles; but the medial breadth is not above 900. The whole length of the Spanish possessions in America may thus be computed at more than 5000 geographical miles; though not equal in extent, yet far superior, in every other respect, to the Asiatic empire of Russia. On the east, the boundary between the Spanish possessions and those of the Dutch and Portuguese is sometimes ascertained by ridges of mountains and rivers, but often consists of an ideal line, observed upon a map at one glance, while a verbal description would be unnecessarily prolix. In general, the Portuguese territory in South America is perhaps equal in extent to the Spanish, compensating by its breadth, which includes the far greater part of the Marañon, for the deficiency in length.

Zoology.—The chief topics of natural geography have already been discussed in the general view of South America. A singular circumstance in the zoology is the great abundance of horses and cattle, though originally unknown to the new continent; these surprising herds having been multiplied from a few that were turned loose by the first settlers. The cattle are so numerous that they are hunted merely on account of the hides. An author, who resided twenty-two years in Paraguay, informs us, that they equal the Hungarian in size, the standard length of the hide being three ells. The great numbers have lately been thinned by the thoughtless avarice of the hunters. Horses are also very numerous: and mules being indispensable in the alpine countries, where they cannot be reared, about 80,000 are annually sent from the plains of Paraguay to Peru. To procure this mixed breed, young asses are clothed in the fresh skins of foals, and introduced to the mares as their own offspring. Flocks of European sheep also abound; but of this animal some species are peculiar to America. Such is the *llama*; or more properly *vaca*, for llama merely implies a beast or quadruped, which resembles a small camel, and will carry any load under a hundred weight.

The vicuña is somewhat smaller, with shorter and finer wool; and of a brown colour, while the others are various. The guanaco, on the contrary, is a larger and coarser animal than the vicuña, and chiefly employed in the mining countries, where other animals could not pass the precipitous paths. Among the ferocious animals are distinguished those called by Buffon the jaguar, by other writers the tiger; and the cougar, by some called the American lion. The latter is of a reddish brown colour, while the former is marked with black spots upon a yellowish ground. But from Buffon's account of the jaguar, it is evident that he only judged from a small animal, probably sent from French Guiana; but Dobrizhoffer informs us, that as the lions of Africa far exceed those of Paraguay (the cougars) in size and ferocity, so the African tigers yield in magnitude to those of Paraguay. He saw the skin of one killed the day before, which was three ell and two inches in length, or equal to that of a large ox; but he adds, the body is more slender than that of an ox. According to the same author, they kill and carry off oxen and horses; and he gives such singular instances of their strength as to evince the error of Buffon's theory. Other animals are, the wild cat, the elk, the huanao, or guanaco, already mentioned, the ant-bear, &c. In the great river Marañon there appears to be a species of hippopotamus. In the alps towards Tucuman the condor is not unfrequent, seemingly a kind of vulture, with a red crest, the body being black, spotted with white. The ostrich is also found in the wide plains of Paraguay.

Botany.—The natural productions of the country east of the Andes is as yet nearly unknown to European science. We know, from the reports of navigators and occasional travellers, that the vicinity of the coast produces many of the tropical fruits and vegetables, such as the cabbage palm, the coco nut, the chocolate nut, the cotton shrub, the pine apple, the canna, annamum, turmeric, plantain, and sugar-cane. But in the more temperate climate of the high plain of Quito, and upon the sides of the Andes, it is natural to expect plants of a harder constitution. Perhaps the best known and most generally interesting of the trees are the several species of cinchona, from

two of which the Jesuits' bark timber are obtained from the *recemosa*, prior, whose valued species diffuse the *Lima*, and a reciprocal per, and firuvian nation which the potatoe, are and jalap and many of the green-house the resplendent nasturtium, these count

Minerals.—The mineral is universal. In most countries great length American Spanish has special Chili: Copi Putaendo, loa informs mines of na Almaguer, in the noted on account of singular met mistaken for near Zarum the govern

two of which at least that valuable medicine the Peruvian or Jesuits' bark is procured. The cardana alliadora is a large timber tree, remarkable for the strong smell of garlic emitted from the leaves and fresh wood. A kind of coffee, the coffea recemosa, is met with in the mountainous groves of the interior, whose berries are applied to the same use as the cultivated species. The large flowered jasmine and datura arborea diffuse their evening fragrance round the neighbourhood of Lima, and braided in the hair of the women give and receive a reciprocal charm. No less than twenty-four species of pepper, and five or six of capsicum, are reckoned among the Peruvian natives, besides several esculent kinds of solanum, of which the *S. lycopersicon* or love-apple, and *S. tuberosum* or potatoe, are the best known and most esteemed. The tobacco and jalap abound in the groves at the foot of the Andes, and many of the ornamental flowers of our English gardens and green-houses, such as the singular and beautiful calceolaria, the resplendent salvia longiflora, the graceful trapœlum, or nasturtium, and the simple nolana prostrata, are indebted to these countries for their origin.

Mineralogy.—The mineralogy of these extensive regions is universally celebrated as the most important in the world. In most accounts the mines of silver have been described at great length, while Brazil is considered as the chief country of American gold. But the noblest metal also abounds in the Spanish possessions here, as well as in Mexico: and Gmelin has specially enumerated the following places in Peru and Chili: Copiapo, Quasco, Coquimbo, Petorca, Ligua, Tiltil, Putaendo, Caren, Alhué, Chibato, and Huilli-Patagua. Ulloa informs us that the department of Popayan abounds in mines of native gold; the richest being those of Cali, Buga, Almaguer, and Barbacoas; and there are also several mines in the noted district of Choco, some of which were abandoned on account of the abundance of platina, a more rare and singular metal than gold, but at first, as appears from Bouguer, mistaken for an obdurate pyrites. Other gold mines were near Zaruma, within the jurisdiction of Loxa; and some in the government of Jaen Bracamoros. Near the village of

Angamarca, in the jurisdiction of Latacunga, was a mine of prodigious value. Gold is also found in the sand of many rivers that flow into the Marañon. But the state of the mines of Buenos Ayres, as published by Helms, will convey a complete idea of this subject; and it thence appears that the silver mines are there far more productive than those of gold, except the produce returned to St. Jago de Catagoita, about 80 miles to the south of Potosi. Those of silver being more numerous, and more easily worked, have excited the chief attention of the indolent colonists.

The celebrated mountain of Potosi has presented, for two centuries and a half, inexhaustible treasures of silver; while the gold seems thinly scattered by nature, and has no where been discovered in such enormous masses. Hence, if the noted plain of Cinaguilla in North America be excepted, there is hitherto no example of any gold mine eminently rich, far less rivalling the proud reputation of Potosi. This mountain, of a conic form, is about 20 British miles in circumference, and perforated by more than 800 rude shafts, through a firm yellow argillaceous schistus. There are veins of ferruginous quartz, interspersed with what are called the horn and vitreous ores. Of a peculiar dark reddish colour, this mountain rises void of all vegetation, blasted by the numerous furnaces, which in the night form a grand spectacle. This surprising mine was discovered, 1545, by Hualpa, a Peruvian, who in pursuing some chamboys pulled up a bush, and beheld under the root that amazing vein of silver afterwards called *la rica*, or the rich. He shared this discovery with his friend Huanca, who revealed it to a Spaniard his master; and the mine was formally registered 21st April, 1545.

Another celebrated mine is that of mercury, indispensable in amalgamating the precious metals. While Mexico is supplied from Spain, Peru has the native product of Guancavelica, a district and town not far to the south-west of Lima, near the great bend of the old Marañon. The cinnabar had been used by the Peruvians as a red paint; and the quicksilver was first detected about 1567. The mine is now so large that there are said to be streets, and chapels where mass is celebrated.

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Platina is chiefly found in the mines of Choco and Barbacoas, in the viceroyalty of New Granada. Tin, according to Helms, is found at Chayanza and Paria; and there are also several mines of copper and lead. The chief copper mine was at Aroa; but the colonies are mostly supplied from the mines of Cuba. Among the other minerals may be mentioned the galinazo stone, so called from its black colour, being a volcanic glass or obsidian, sometimes confounded with the Inca stone or mirror of the Incas, both being used as looking-glasses. According to Ulloa, the Inca stone is of a leaden colour and soft, being probably a marcasite or pyritical mixture, not yet analyzed. In the time of the Incas emeralds were also common, chiefly on the coast of Manta, and in the government of Atacames, where it is said that there are mines which the Indians will not reveal, as they must encounter the labour of working them. The river of Emeralds flows from the Andes to the north of Quito: and others of inferior quality are found near Bogota, where are the chief modern mines of Peruvian emeralds, justly preferred to all others, since those of Egypt have been neglected. Those found in the tombs are worked into spheres, cylinders, cones, and other figures, and pierced with great precision; but in what manner this was accomplished remains unknown. According to Ulloa, rubies have also been observed in the jurisdiction of Cuenza. It is unnecessary to mention the abundance of sulphur, bitumen, and vitriol, or sulphate of iron, commercially called copperas.

Population.—It is probable that the population of the Spanish possessions in South America is about 9,000,000. The use of spirituous liquors, and the small pox, with another endemic disease, which acts at intervals like a pestilence, obstruct the increase of the natives. The Spaniards and Creoles are far more numerous in New Spain than in South America, where it is probable they do not exceed 2,000,000. The negroes may constitute about a twentieth part of the population. As the Spaniards have no settlements in Africa, their colonies were chiefly supplied by the Dutch and English; but since

the abolition of the slave trade in England, the Portuguese and Spaniards have carried slaves to their own settlements.

Manners and Customs.—Among the native nations, the Peruvians are by far the most interesting, having in some instances advanced nearer to civilization than the Mexicans. The llama, which may be called a small camel, had been rendered subservient to their industry; and their buildings, erected of stone, still remain, while of the earthen edifices of the Mexicans, even the ruins have perished. The history of the Peruvian monarchs is indeed vague and unsatisfactory, the noted quipos somewhat resembling the wampum of the North Americans, being brief and transitory records. The government of the Incas was a kind of theocracy, and the inhabitants revered a divine descent, not claimed by the Mexican monarchs. The religion of the Peruvians was that of love and beneficence; while the Mexicans seem, in their cruel rites, to have been wholly influenced by the fear of malignant deities. Some sacrifices of the smaller animals, and offerings of fruits and flowers, formed the chief rites of Peruvian superstition.

The Mexican monarchy was founded by the sword, the Peruvian by superiority of wisdom; and the captives taken in war were not immolated, but instructed in the arts of civilization. An excellent writer justly pronounces, that the Peruvians had advanced far beyond the Mexicans, both in the necessary arts of life, and in such as have some title to the name of elegant. Manures and irrigation were not unknown, though a kind of mattock formed the chief instrument of agriculture. Their edifices were sometimes of bricks hardened in the sun; but others were constructed of large stones, the walls, however, never exceeding twelve feet in height. The great roads between Cuzco and Quito are indeed slight and perishable when compared with European exertions; yet become wonderful, when estimated with the other parts of savage America. Their weapons and ornaments also display no small degree of skill, particularly in cutting and piercing emeralds, a gem of great hardness. Amidst all those laudable qualities, it is to be regretted, that superstition led them to sacrifice numerous victims on the death of a chief; and a fa-

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yourite monarch was sometimes followed to the tomb by a thousand slaughtered servants. Had the conquest of America been effected by the Spaniards at a period like the present, when European warfare has lost half its ferocity, the Peruvian monarchy might have been respected and preserved, for in the other parts of South America there is a superabundance of the precious metals to satiate the utmost wish of avarice. Whether the ruling people be chiefly cut off, or from the mere depression of slavery, it is impossible to discover in the manners of the Peruvian natives any marks of their ancient advancement. The methodical tyranny exercised over them is very severe. They are reduced to become even the slaves of slaves; for the Spaniards encourage their negroes to treat them with the greatest insolence; and they politically keep up a rancour, now grown inveterate, between these two races of people. They are forbidden, under the severest penalties, to marry, or to have an unlawful intercourse together. Division is the great instrument to which the Spaniards trust for the preservation of their colonies. The native Spaniard alone has all the lucrative offices, civil, ecclesiastical, and military. He despises the Creolian. The Creolian hates and envies him. Both condemn and maltreat the Indians, who, on their side, are not insensible of the indignities they suffer. The blacks are encouraged to trample on the Indians, and to consider their interests as altogether opposite; while the Indians, in their nominal freedom, look with an envious disdain upon the slavery of the negroes, which makes them their masters.

What is extraordinary, the Spaniards, not content with reducing this unhappy nation under so cruel a yoke, as if they thought it nothing unless they were thoroughly sensible of its weight, suffer the Indians to celebrate an annual festival, in which plays are represented, commemorating the overthrow of their own state. These are acted with all the horrid and aggravating circumstances which attended this event; and the people are at this time so enraged, that the Spaniards find it dangerous to go abroad. In the city of Lima, there is annually celebrated a festival of this kind, with a grand procession, wherein they carry in a sort of triumph the remaining de-

scendant of the Incas of Peru, and his wife; who at that time receive all imaginable honours in the most melancholy pomp, from a race bowed down with the sense of the common bondage of prince and people. This throws the most affecting gloom over the festival, that renews the image of their former freedom. To this remaining Inca the viceroy of Peru does homage when he enters upon his government. The Inca sits upon a lofty stage, and the viceroy makes his obeisance upon a horse, who is taught to kneel upon the occasion. This manner of proceeding may be thought of the most refined strain of insolent tyranny, and to be as impolitic as it is insulting; but it is not impossible that those vents, which they suffer the indignation of the people to take, may carry off a spirit that might otherwise break out in a much more fatal manner. Whether by the division they keep up, or by these vents, or by the management of the clergy, or by whatever means, the Spaniards preserve their conquests with very little force: the Indians are even armed, and make a considerable part of their militia: it is true they are interdicted the use of weapons without licence; but licence is procured without much difficulty. They have likewise a large number of free blacks, and they too are formed into companies in their militia. Certain it is that, both in the Spanish and Portuguese colonies, they find slavery compatible enough with great licence in some respects, and both with the security of the masters. Things deserving our consideration; as we do not seem to excel in the conciliating arts of government in our colonies, nor to think that any thing is to be effected by other instruments than those of terror and rude force.

The manners of the Spaniards in South America are similar to those in Mexico; and do not partake of any peculiar trait worthy of observation.

Language.—The language of the ruling people in Peru was called Quichua, and it is still cultivated by the Spanish clergy, as indispensable in the conversion of the natives. The sounds *b, d, f, g, r,* are wanting; but when the Spanish grammarians add the *x* and *z*, they forget that their *x* is an *h*, or *sh*, and their *z* is equally expressed by *s*. The grammar of this lan-

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guage, and it is said even that of the Tehuels, is nearly as variegated and artificial as the Greek, whence our wonder at the refinement of the Sanscrit may perhaps suffer considerable abatement.

Cities and Towns.—In describing the chief cities in the immense regions of Spanish America, it will be most conducive to perspicuity, to arrange them according to the grand divisions to which they belong. A brief account of these divisions will also, with propriety, precede the account of the cities which they contain.

Peru.—The viceroyalty of Peru comprehends the audieney of Lima, the province of La Paz, and the presidency of San Yago. This presidency is, however, separated from the other parts of the viceroyalty by the audieney of Charcas, which belongs to the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. The two former occupy the principal part of the ancient Peru.

This great empire, the foundation of which by the Incas remains enveloped in the obscurity of a series of fables, and of an uncertain tradition, has lost much of its local grandeur since the time when it was stripped, on the north side, of the provinces which form the kingdom of Quito, and afterwards of those which, towards the east, constitute the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. Its present extent in length runs, north and south, over a space of from 1260 to 1350 miles, from 2 deg. to nearly 23 deg. of south lat.; and its greatest breadth is from 300 to 360 miles, east and west, i. e. about 13 degrees of west long. The river of Guayaquil divides it from the new kingdom of Grenada on the north side. The depopulated territory of Atacama separates it from the kingdom of Chili towards the south. Another horrible desert, of more than 1500 miles extent, separates it towards the east from the provinces of Paraguay and Buenos Ayres; and, last, the Pacific ocean washes its western shores.

A chain of barren and rugged mountains; several sandy plains, which in a manner reach from one extremity of the coast to the other; and several lakes, of many leagues in extent, some of which are situated on the summits of the above chain of mountains, occupy a great part of the Peruvian terri-

tory. Throughout, the breaks and the valleys, which enjoy the benefit of irrigation, present to the view an extensive range of delightful plains, replete with villages and towns, and the climate of which is highly salubrious. That of the elevated spots of La Sierra is extremely cold. In the pampas, or plains, of Bombou, Fahrenheit's thermometer is constantly at from 34 to 40 degrees above zero.

There are three cities in Peru famous for their opulence and trade; Lima, Cusco, and Quito. *Lima* lies in the northern part of Peru, in the latitude of 12 deg. south, and 290 east longitude from Teneriffe. It stands about two leagues from the sea, upon a river called Rimac, small and unnavigable. This city is the capital of Peru, and of all South America; it extends in length about two miles, and in breadth about one quarter; its distant appearance, from the multitude of spires and domes, is extremely majestic; and when you enter it, you see the streets laid out with the greatest regularity, cutting each other at equal distances and right angles; the houses, on account of the equality of the climate, are slightly roofed, as they are built low and of light materials, to avoid the consequences of earthquakes, frequent and dreadful in this country. But they are elegantly plastered and painted on the outside, so as to have all the appearance of freestone. To add to the beauty and convenience of this city, most houses have a garden, watered by cuts drawn from the river; each man commands a little running stream for his own use; in a hot and dry country, as this is, no small matter of convenience and delight. Here is a grand walk by the river side, 200 fathoms long, consisting of five rows of fine orange trees. To this the company resorts at five in the evening, drawn in their coaches and calashes. Such is the opulence of this city, that, exclusive of coaches, there are kept in it upwards of 5000 of these carriages. The royal square is extremely handsome, and in the middle is placed a beautiful fountain of bronze, surmounted by an image of Fame, executed in a very good style. This square is from 500 to 600 feet in length, and is surrounded by superb edifices.

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The climate is here healthy, and extremely agreeable; and though no rain falls, the ground is watered by a gentle dew termed *garra*; a variety of the most delicious fruits abound in the vicinity of Lima; and, in short, nothing is here wanting which can contribute to the comfort or the luxury of the inhabitants.

Lima is divided into four quarters, and contains 355 streets and 3641 houses. The population is estimated at 57,027 souls; of which number, 17,215 are Spaniards, 3219 Indians, 8960 negroes, and the remainder people of colour.

It is evident that the number of inhabitants bears no proportion to the extent of the place, which in this climate is at first matter of surprise; but the cause becomes pretty obvious, when the great mortality of children, the frequent earthquakes, and total want of productive means of livelihood in this apparently brilliant metropolis, are taken into consideration.

Lima has fifty-four churches, taking in the cathedral, the parochial, and conventual; thirteen monasteries of men (besides six colleges of Jesuits), one of which contains 700, and another 500 friars and servants; twelve nunneries, the principal of which has not less than 300 nuns; and twelve hospitals, besides foundations for the portioning of poor girls. There is one university in Lima, dedicated to St. Mark.

This city is the residence of a viceroy, who is president of the royal audience; besides an ecclesiastical tribunal, there is also a supreme tribunal of audience, composed of a president, a fiscal, and two examiners. A treasury is established here for receiving the duty on the produce of the mines, as well as all the taxes paid by the Indians to the king of Spain. Two newspapers are published at Lima. The '*Gazeta de Lima*,' which appears twice a week, and is exactly similar to the '*Gazeta de Madrid*,' and the annual '*Quin Poltica, Ecclesiastica, y Militar*,' in 12mo., which, besides the calendar, and a list of civil and military officers, contains much valuable geographical and statistical information.

Nothing can give a true idea of the vast wealth of Lima, except the churches, which the most judicious travellers speak

of with astonishment, and seem incapable of describing, on account of that amazing profusion of gold, silver, and precious stones with which every thing (even the walls) is in a manner totally covered. The tide of this vast wealth is fed from sources as copious; this city being the great magazine for all the plate of Peru, which is coined here; for the large manufactures and natural products of that kingdom; for those of Chili; and for all the luxuries and conveniences brought from Europe and the East Indies.

The trade carried on by the merchants of Lima, is represented by Alcedo to be very extensive; but this author appears to have overlooked the great decay of this trade, occasioned by the growing prosperity of Buenos Ayres, which is much more conveniently situated for the European commerce. Besides, the government has established at this last place, a magazine for the produce of the mines of Potosi and La Plata; these are now conveyed thither by the Pilomayo, and the river La Plata, which is a much shorter and more secure route than that of Lima.

The beauty of the situation, the fertility of the soil, the mildness of the climate, and the riches of the inhabitants of Lima, are not, however, sufficient to compensate for the continual dangers with which they are menaced. Lima continued in great splendour until the year 1747, when a most tremendous earthquake, which entirely devoured Callao, the port belonging to it, laid three-fourths of this city level with the ground. The destruction of Callao was the most perfect and terrible that can be conceived; no more than one of all the inhabitants escaping, and he by a providence the most singular and extraordinary imaginable. This man was on the fort that overlooked the harbour, going to strike the flag, when he perceived the sea to retire to a considerable distance; and then swelling mountain high, it returned with great violence. The inhabitants ran from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; he heard a cry of *Misericordia* rise from all parts of the city; and immediately all was silent; the sea had entirely overwhelmed this city, and buried it for ever in its bosom:

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but the same wave which destroyed the city, drove a little boat by the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself, and was saved.

Whilst this town subsisted, it contained about 3000 inhabitants of all kinds, had five convents, and possessed the finest port of all Peru. Here were the rich warehouses furnished with all the goods of Europe, which being landed by the galleons at Porto Bello, were brought over land to Panama, and thence transported by the arnadillo, or fleet, with a convoy of three men of war reserved for this purpose. To this port arrived the annual ship from Acapulco, laden with all the products of the east; from Chili it received vast quantities of corn, dried beef and pork, leather, tallow, plank, and several sorts of woollen goods, particularly carpets like those of Turkey. From the southern ports of Peru were brought sugars, wine and brandy, naval stores, cacao, Virginia wool, and tobacco. From Mexico it had pitch and tar, woods for dyeing, and that balsam which we improperly call of Peru, since it comes from Guatimala.

The province of *Quito* is perhaps one of the most singular and interesting countries in the universe. The valley of *Quito* is situated 1460 toises above the level of the sea, which is higher than the tops of the most elevated mountains of Pyrenees. A double range of mountains surround this delightful valley; though under the equator, an eternal spring reigns in this favoured spot; the trees are perpetually clothed with luxuriant foliage, and loaded with fruits of every species; it abounds with animals, the wool of which is employed in the manufacture of stuffs, which form its principal article of commerce with Peru. They likewise manufacture in this city cotton cloth, equal in fineness to that which they receive from England. The province every where abounds with mines of gold, silver, copper, and other metals; there are also several mines of quicksilver, rubies, amethysts, emeralds, rock crystal, and of beautiful marble of different qualities.

The labouring classes of the inhabitants of the city of *Quito* are industrious, and have attained to considerable perfection in many arts and manufactures, particularly in those of woollen

and cotton cloths, which they dye blue, and dispose of in the different cities and villages of Peru. The number of the inhabitants of this city is estimated at 50,000, of which the majority are Mestizes, the offspring of native Indians and Spaniards. It is governed by a president, and in it is held the supreme court of justice: it is likewise a bishop's see. The inequalities of the ground on which it stands are so great, as to render the use of carriages inadmissible. The houses are constructed of brick, and seldom exceed two stories in height.

But this fertile and smiling country is not the abode of safety and tranquillity. 'Unfortunate people!' says the eloquent Marmontel, when speaking of the inhabitants of Quito; 'Unfortunate people! whom the fertility of this deceitful land has drawn together; its flowers, its fruits, and its luxuriant harvests, cover an abyss underneath their feet. The fecundity of the soil is produced by the exhalations of a devouring fire; its increasing fertility forebodes its ruin, and it is in the very bosom of abundance that we behold engulfed its thoughtless and happy possessors.'

M. Humboldt, who visited the city of Quito in 1802, describes the effects produced in its vicinity by the dreadful earthquake which occurred in 1797. 'Quito,' says this traveller, 'is a handsome city, but the atmosphere is always cloudy; the neighbouring mountains are only covered with a scanty verdure, and the cold is very considerable. The tremendous earthquake of February, 1797, which desolated the whole province, and swallowed up from 35 to 40,000 individuals, was also fatal to the inhabitants of this capital. Such was the change produced by it on the temperature of the air, that Reaumar's thermometer, which at present fluctuates from 4 to 10 deg., and rarely ascends to 16 deg. or 17 deg., constantly stood, previous to that catastrophe, at 15 or 16 deg. Since this period, likewise, the province under consideration has been constantly subject to more or less violent shocks; and it is not improbable that all the elevated parts of it form a single volcano. The mountains of Cotopaxi and Pinchincha are only small summits, of which the craters form the different funnels, all terminating in the same cavity. The earthquake

of 1797 unfortunately affords but too convincing a proof of the justness of this hypothesis, since, during that dreadful occurrence, the earth opened in all directions, and ejected sulphur, water, &c. Notwithstanding the recollection of this afflicting event, and a probability of a recurrence of similar dangers, the inhabitants of Quito are said to be gay, lively, and amiable; their city is the abode of luxury and voluptuousness, and in no other place can there be displayed a more decided taste for amusements of every description.

Cusco, the capital of the ancient empire, is still a very considerable city; it is at a good distance from the sea, and situated in the mountainous part of the country: it has not less than 40,000 inhabitants, three parts Indians, who are very industrious and ingenious. Though little instructed in the art, a taste for painting prevails, and some performances of the Indians of Cusco and Quito have met with applause in Italy. An incredible quantity of pictures are painted here, and are dispersed all over Peru and Chili. They have here likewise manufactures of bays and cotton, and they work largely in leather.

New Grenada.—This viceroyalty was established in 1718. It comprehends Terra Firma, Panama, Veraguay, to which has also been added the province of Quito. This immense division presents a great variety of surface. Terra Firma, though on the coast, is the most unpleasant and most unhealthy country in the torrid zone: yet the plain grounds are remarkably fertile, and produce corn enough when cultivated, all kinds of the tropical fruits, rich drugs, cacao, vanilla, indigo, pimento, guaiacum, sarsaparilla, and balsam of Peru. No country abounds more in rich and luxuriant pasturage, or has a greater stock of black cattle. Their rivers have rich golden sands; their coasts have good pearl fisheries; and their mines formerly yielded great quantities of gold: but at present they are neglected or exhausted; so that the principal wealth of this kingdom arises from the commerce of Carthagena; and what treasure is seen there is mostly the return for European commodities which are sent from that port to Santa Fe, Popayan, and Quito. Its chief city is Panama.

The city of *Panama* is situated upon one of the best harbours, in all respects, of the South seas. Ships of burden lie safe at some distance from the town; but smaller vessels come up to the walls. In the bay is a pearl fishery of great value. The town, one of the largest in America, is said to contain 5000 houses, elegantly built of brick and stone, disposed in a semicircular form, and enlivened with the spires and domes of several churches and monasteries. It is covered on the land side with an agreeable country, diversified with hills, valleys, and woods. The town stands upon a dry and tolerably healthful ground, and has a great and profitable trade with Peru, Chili, and the western coast of Mexico, chiefly for provisions of every sort, both of the animal and vegetable kinds; corn, wine, sugar, oil, with tallow, leather, and Jesuits' bark. In the neighbourhood of this city they raise nothing; and yet, by traffic and their convenient situation, there are few cities more abundantly supplied with all things for necessity, convenience, or luxury. Their trade with the Terra Firma and with Europe is carried on over the isthmus of Darien, and by the river Chagra.

Carthagena is the second town of consideration in Terra Firma, and stands upon a peninsula, that encloses one of the best defended harbours in all Spanish America. The town itself is well fortified, and built after the elegant fashion of most of the Spanish American towns, with a square in the middle, and streets running every way regularly from it, and others cutting these at right angles. This town has many rich churches and convents; that of the Jesuits is particularly magnificent. Here it is that the galleons on their voyage from Spain put in first, and dispose of a considerable part of their cargo; which from hence is distributed to St. Martha, the Caraccas, Venezuela, and most of the other provinces and towns in the Terra Firma.

Viceroyalty of La Plata.—This portion of South America may be said to consist of four distinct and grand divisions; viz. that of Buenos Ayres; the government of Paraguay proper, and Tucuman; the audiency of Charcas, or the detached provinces adjoining Peru; with New Chili, or the provinces

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The province of Buenos Ayres, which is sometimes called after the Rio de la Plata, comprises a vast space of territory on the banks of the great river of La Plata. The eastern part is crossed by the Uruguay, and it contains a number of mountains, particularly in the interior: the other part is an immense plain, which extends to the bases of the Andes, and is in many parts impregnated with salt and nitre.

Since the period when this province was separated from Peru, and united to the new viceroyalty of Rio de la Plata, (1778,) agriculture, manufactures, and trade, have made an incredible progress. Its prosperity is likewise considerably promoted by its excellent climate, its vast extent, and wonderfully fruitful soil, which is intersected by a multitude of large and small rivers, whose streams not only serve for the purpose of irrigation and interior circulation, but also to maintain, by means of their common influx into the Rio de la Plata, an intercourse with the ocean; and its maritime communications are aided by the excellent harbours of Buenos Ayres, Monte Video, Maldonado la Colonia, and the bay of Barraguan.

Buenos Ayres is the capital of the whole province of the river La Plata. Its site is very handsome. From the north side may be seen the river, the width of which is beyond the reach of the eye. The environs consist of nothing but extensive and beautiful fields, always covered with verdure. The port is always exposed to the winds, on account of which vessels cannot approach very near to the town; while the boats or small craft which go to it, are obliged to make a detour, and enter a stream which empties itself into the main river; the water in this is two or three fathoms deep; but when the tide has ebbed in the great river, the branch in question cannot be entered.

Buenos Ayres is the residence of a viceroy and a bishop, and may be considered as the second city of South America. It is supposed to contain 3000 houses, and 40,000 inhabitants. This city is now the grand emporium of all the commerce of the provinces of Peru; and the goods are conveyed thither in

waggons drawn by horses. The conductors travel in caravans, on account of the Pampas Indians, who are very troublesome to travellers. This city is watered by several large rivers, all of which empty themselves into that of La Plata. It has a fine square surrounded with superb buildings, and a fortress on the river, which is the residence of the governor. The streets are perfectly regular, with foot-paths on each side.

That the climate of Buenos Ayres is very salubrious, appears from the proportion of the births to the deaths; and consequently the city has not been improperly named. In June, July, August, and September, however, fogs arise from the river, which affect the lungs and breast. The vehement winds too which blow from the pampas, or plains, and are therefore called *pamperos*, prove very troublesome to the inhabitants. Neither in the city of Buenos Ayres, nor in Tucuman, does any snow ever fall: sometimes it freezes a little, so as to cover the water with a thin coating of ice, which is collected and preserved with great care, for the purpose of cooling their liquors.

Formerly the citizens of Buenos Ayres had no country houses; and, except peaches, none of the finer sorts of fruit were produced there. At present, there are few persons of opulence but have villas, and cultivate in their gardens all kinds of fruit, culinary plants, and flowers. The houses are in general not very high; but most of them are built in a light and beautiful manner, and their interior exhibits great neatness and an abundant supply of good furniture. The city is well supplied with provisions; of fresh meat, in particular, there is so great an abundance, that it is frequently distributed gratis to the poor. The river water is rather muddy, but it soon becomes clear and drinkable by being kept in large tubs or earthen vessels. Of fish too there is great abundance.

At Buenos Ayres, the men as well as the women dress after the Spanish mode; and the fashions of Cadiz are generally copied here, but usually some years after their prevalence in the mother country. The ladies in Buenos Ayres are reckoned the most agreeable and handsome of all South America.

Until the year 1747, no regular post was established either in Buenos Ayres, or the whole province of Tucuman, notwithstanding the great intercourse and trade with the neighbouring provinces: but, in 1748, the viceroy Don Andonaegui instituted regular posts.

In the villages round Buenos Ayres, it is not uncommon to meet with people in their *eightieth* year, who still retain the full vigour and health of middle age. Epidemics or other dangerous diseases are wholly unknown; and were not the peasants, and those persons whose avocations expose them to such hazards, liable to so many dangerous casualties from the cattle and horses, people of an hundred years old, or upwards, would be nothing remarkable in this country.

Monte Video is a town upon the river of La Plata, about 60 miles from its mouth. It has a large and convenient harbour, and the climate is mild and agreeable. The markets are plentifully supplied with fish and meat at a very cheap rate. Its principal trade is in leather.

Don Perneti has given a curious picture of the Spaniards of Monte Video. To sleep, talk, smoke a segar, and ride on horseback, are the occupations in which they pass three-fourths of the day. The great abundance of provisions gives facility to their idleness; besides which, there are amongst them many persons of property, so that they all appear anxious to live in style, and have nothing to do.

The women, during the whole of the morning, sit on stools in their entrance halls, having under their feet, first, a cane mat, and over that a piece of the stuff made by the Indians, or a tiger's skin. They amuse themselves with playing on a guitar, or some similar instrument, which they accompany with their voice, while the negresses prepare the dinner.

In these countries jealousy does not disturb either sex. The men publicly acknowledge their illegitimate children, who become the heir of their fathers. There is no shame attached to bastardy, because the laws so far authorise promiscuous intercourse, as to grant to the children which result from it the title of gentlemen.

The women, though covered by a veil in public places, live at home with as much freedom, to say the least of it, as females do in France; they receive company as they do in France; and do not suffer themselves to be pressed to dance, sing, or play on the harp, guitar, or mandoline. In this respect they are much more complaisant than French women, if we may credit the assertion of Don Perneti. When they are not occupied in dancing, they sit continually on the stools already mentioned, which they sometimes place outside the door. The men are not allowed to sit among them unless they are invited, and such a favour is considered as a great familiarity.

At Monte Video, a lively and very lascivious dance is much practised: it is called *calenda*; and the negroes, as well as the mulattoes, whose constitutions are sanguine, are excessively fond of it. This dance was introduced in America by the negroes who were imported from the kingdom of Ardra, on the coast of Guinea; and the Spaniards have adopted it in all their establishments. It is, however, so indecent, as to shock and astonish those who have not been in the habit of seeing it performed. The accounts which have been given of this licentious recreation are so different from what is conceived in Europe, that a particular detail of them would resemble a story of La Fontaine, rather than a matter of fact.

The common people, in which are included the mulattoes and negroes, wear, instead of a cloak, a piece of stuff, in stripes of different colours, which appears like a sack, having only a hole at top for the admission of the head; it hangs over the arms down to the wrist, and reaches, both before and behind, down to the calf of the leg; it is fringed all round at the bottom. The men of every class wear it when they ride on horseback, and find it much more convenient than the common cloak. The governor shewed one of these habiliments to Messrs. Bougainville, Perneti, &c., which was embroidered with gold and silver, and had cost him upwards of 300 piastres. The same dresses are made at Chili, in such a style as to cost 2000; and it is from that country that they have been imported at Monte Video. This dress is known by the name

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of *poncho* or *chony*: it secures the wearer from rain, is not ruffled by the wind, and not only serves him for a coverlid at night, but also for a carpet when he rests in the fields.

Paraguay.—The subdivisions of this great province are very imperfectly known. The upper part of the country, which lies along the rivers of Paraguay, Pilcomayo, and Vermejo, consists of fine plains, watered by a great number of rivulets, agreeable hills, and thick forests; but the lower part contains a series of barren or swampy countries, in which there are large saline plains. To the east of Parana, the ground is hilly.

The state of the towns in Paraguay is but little known. *Assuncion*, in English *Assumption*, is the capital of the province: it is situated 840 miles from Buenos Ayres, on the river of Paraguay. Though the residence of a bishop and a governor, it is but thinly inhabited. *Neemboucou* is a pretty town, situated, according to M. d'Azzara, 99 miles from the town of Assumption. *Courouguati*, another town mentioned by d'Azzara, is 108 miles east-north-east of Assumption.

Tucuman.—Tucuman is a very extensive province; its length by the post roads is about 1580 miles, of which 1906 are very fruitful soil, and 274 waste; the first part is passable with waggons, but in the latter only saddle-beasts are employed.

The principal towns in this province are, the Salta of Tucuman, which is the residence of a governor, and is situated in a very fertile valley; Jujui, Rioja, San Fernando, Saint Jaques de l'Esterro, San Miguel, and Cordova.

Cordova is the residence of a bishop, and the best town in the province. It lies on a small sandy plain, between a thick forest and the Rio Primero, and forms nearly a regular square. The houses in general have only one story, but are tolerably good, and are neatly and solidly constructed. The city contains three men's, and an equal number of women's convents, called 'Collegios;' one of which has the title of 'University,' and formerly belonged to the Jesuits. Many wealthy individuals reside here, who carry on a lucrative trade in mules. They purchase the young foals in the neighbourhood of Buenos Ayres, Santa Fe, and Corrientes, bringing them up at first



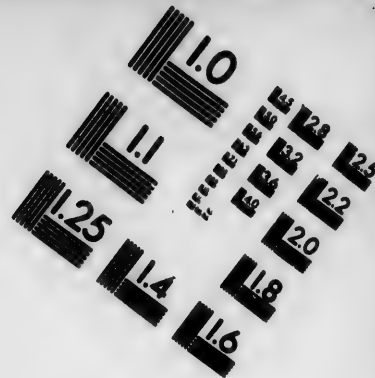
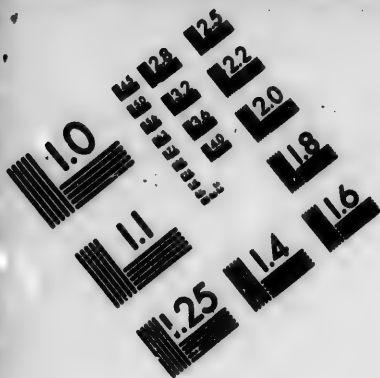
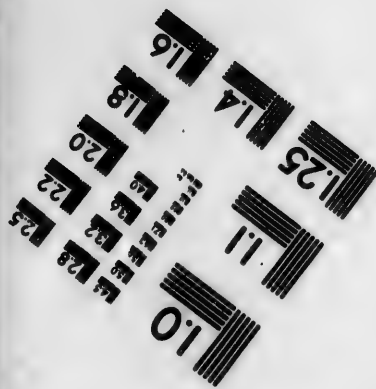
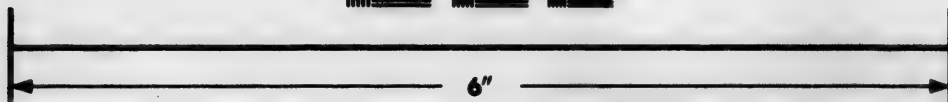
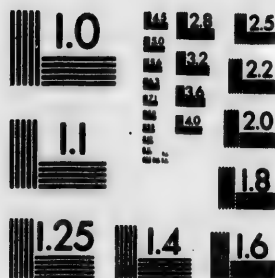


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in their own fields, from which at a more advanced growth they remove them to those near Salta, and sell them a year and a half or two years afterwards, to the mule-dealers from Peru at eight or ten piastres the head.

Sant Iago del Estero is a poor place, which lies on a river of the same name, in a marshy country that is frequently overflowed. The inhabitants pass for the best soldiers in the whole province; but, with the exception of some mule-dealers, live in great poverty. Exclusive of a magnificent Jesuits' college, that would lodge the whole place with convenience, there are nothing but miserable huts in the town. The women belonging to it make very good woollen carpets, but unfortunately there is not much demand for them.

St. Miguel is situated in a most beautiful country, amongst fertile plains of figs and citrons, vying with the pomegranate and lively orange trees. The inhabitants carry on a good trade in mules, particularly those destined for draught, which are wanted for the land-carriage to Buenos Ayres and Jujui; and the vehicles so employed are also constructed here. They are a sort of lofty two-wheeled caravan, railed round with cane, and covered on the outside with ox-hides.

Salta del Tucuman lies in an extremely fenny situation; it is scarcely possible to dig three feet without finding water; and, on the other hand, the vale of Lerma, at whose issue the city is situated, is beautifully covered with meadows and fields. Salta does not probably contain more than 3000 inhabitants, yet it is of considerable importance on account of its extensive trade in mules, but more particularly its great annual fair, which is held in the months of February and March, and attracts an extraordinary number of strangers. The sellers from Buenos Ayres, Cordova, Santa Fe, Corrientes, &c., and the purchasers out of Peru, come hither in crowds; and there are often seen at that period about Salta, 60,000 mules, and 4000 horses, all of which go to Peru. This fair would in all probability be still more brilliant, were it not held in the rainy months, when the neighbourhood is scarcely better than a vast morass, and the number of strangers, who are obliged to take up a temporary residence outside the town, can hardly find a

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spot of ground whereon to fix their tents. It is not improbable but to these marshy exhalations may be attributed the hideous *goiters* with which the female sex is here so frequently afflicted. As beautiful as the women are, and distinguished for their fine complexions, and particularly the fine growth of their hair, no sooner have they attained their twenty-fifth year, than their necks progressively increase in size, till they at length attain to a most disgusting protuberance; and in order to conceal this deformity, these poor women envelope themselves up to the chin in a thick handkerchief.

Charcas.—This *audiency* is divided into several large provinces. The climate, in general, is hot and moist; and the soil very fertile. Great part of this region is inhabited by hordes of Indians, some of whom are on friendly terms with the Spaniards, and others are so barbarous that they eat their enemies.

Santa Cruz de la Sierra is the capital of the province of that name. It is a modern built place, for the old town, which was more towards the south, is destroyed. It is a large city, well peopled, and has a governor and a bishop; the latter, however, resides at *Misque Pocona*.

La Plata is the capital of the province of *Chuquisaco*, and was first called 'La Plata on account of a famous silver mine, which was in the mountain of Porco, near the city in question, and from which the Incas derived immense sums. The nobility of this place are the most distinguished of any in Peru, and they still retain many privileges. The number of the inhabitants is about 14,000, amongst whom are many Spaniards. This city is the residence of an archbishop, whose authority extends over the whole viceroyalty.

There are several other large towns in this *audiency*, which do not merit a particular description.

Potosi.—This *corregidory* contains the famous silver mines which have been so often mentioned. These mines afforded, between the years 1545 and 1648, the enormous sum of 80,000,000 of pounds sterling; and they are still far from exhaustion. The metal continues to be abundant, though the most accessible part has been taken away, and the Spaniards

will not give themselves the trouble to sink these mines very deep, because there are in Peru, and even in the vicinity of Potosi, many others which can be more easily worked.

The city or town of Potosi contains, according to Helms, 100,000 souls, inclusive of slaves; but other writers state the numbers at not more than 50,000. We ought, however, to prefer the testimony of Helms, because he resided many years in that country. Potosi is the seat of the administration of the mines, and the tribunals that relate thereto: it is the centre of a very considerable commerce, which is conveyed by the river Pilcomayo.

Chili proper.—This division of Spanish America is in length from north to south between 1500 and 1650 miles; and its width from east to west about 240 miles, which comprises the chain of the Andes. It is bounded to the west by the Pacific ocean, to the north by Peru, to the east by Tucuman, and to the south by the countries of Magellan. It is separated from all these regions by the Andes.

The climate of Chili proper is temperate and salubrious, its soil fertile, and it always has a clear sky. The cold of winter is moderate, and the heat of summer is cooled by the winds that blow from the sea and the Andes. It contains every metal, semi-metal, and mineral, that has hitherto been discovered.

Sant Iago, the capital of the whole kingdom of Chili, is situated in 38 deg. 40 min. 11 sec. south lat., and is 90 miles from the port of Valparayso. The town is said to be more than three miles in circumference. The streets intersect each other at right angles, and some of them are tolerably wide, and three-quarters of a mile long. Its population is estimated at 30,500 souls. Some of the edifices in Sant Iago are worthy of mention, on account of their magnificence, though the rules of architecture have not been exactly observed in their construction: the principal are, the mint, the new cathedral, and some churches, though there are several splendid houses belonging to individuals. These all consist only of a ground floor, though the apartments are capacious and lofty. This manner of building, which is, as has been observed, adopted

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from the fear of earthquakes, is probably in the end more convenient, salubrious, and even more magnificent, than the European method of building several floors above each other.

Sant Iago is the residence of a captain-general, who is likewise the civil magistrate of the kingdom of Chili; of a bishop, who enjoys a large revenue, and a still greater degree of respect; of a supreme tribunal, an university, and a college of nobles. There are twelve monasteries and seven nunneries in this capital.

The manner of living at Sant Iago exhibits all the characteristics of gaiety, hospitality, and good nature, which so advantageously distinguish the Spaniards in the New World, as well as in Europe. The women there are handsome brunettes, but a Gothic dress rather disfigures them. The conversation in the first circles of the town seems to partake of the simplicity and freedom which prevail in the country parts of Europe. Dancing and music are here, as well as throughout America, the favourite amusements of both sexes. The luxury of dress and equipages is carried to a great height; but in the furnishing and fitting up of houses, more regard is had to pomp than to neatness and elegance.

The town of *La Concepcion* having been overwhelmed by the sea, in consequence of an earthquake, a new one has been built at some distance from the shore, which is indiscriminately called *La Mocha*, or *New Concepcion*. The inhabitants are about 10,000 in number. It is the residence of an intendant and a military commander, and the authority of these two officers extends over the province of *La Concepcion*, which comprises the south of Chili; but its limits are not precisely known.

Commerce.—The inhabitants of these immense territories have, during three centuries, groaned under the severest despotism, so that commerce has been injured, agriculture neglected, and the exertions of industry paralysed, and in a great measure rendered abortive. Galleons, and afterwards register-ships, were exclusively permitted to carry out European merchandise to the colonies, and in return brought back the gold and silver drawn from the mines of the New World, which the

indolent Spaniards, saw with perfect apathy go to enrich the neighbouring commercial nations.

Spain did not, however, succeed in her projects of monopoly; as the other European nations, which were prohibited by the most severe laws from entering any of her colonial ports, nevertheless contrived, with a boldness and perseverance equal to the importance of the object they had in view, to supply these countries with every article of which they might stand in need. In particular, our own merchants, as well as those of Holland, employed by turns gold and the force of arms to counteract the vigilance of the Spanish *guarda costas*, stationed along the coast, to prevent such contraband traffic. The idea was indeed equally absurd and impolitic to endeavour to shut out the one half of the world from all connection with the other.

From those and other circumstances, few advantages have hitherto been derived from the precious metals, either by America herself, or the mother country; since the former is not permitted to exchange her gold and silver for those commodities of which she may stand in need, and the latter is at no pains to supply those wants.

In 1778, Galvez, at that time minister of American affairs, endeavoured to produce some changes in their ancient colonial system. Under his administration, thirteen principal ports in Old Spain were successively permitted to engage in a free trade with the colonies. Since this period, the manufactures of Old Spain have been greatly improved and multiplied: the linens of Navarre and of Arragon, the cloths of Segovia, the silks of Valencia, besides various other articles, render the Spanish commerce less dependent on foreign importations.

From 1778 to 1788, the number of free ports in the mother country had been increased from seven to twelve. The exportations of Spanish merchandise had also, during the same period, been more than quintupled, the exports of foreign products in Spanish bottoms more than tripled, and the imports from America in return augmented by more than nine-tenths.

From a table given by Mr. Bourgoing, it appears that the total value of the imports from South America, during 1788,

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amounted to 22,667,380*l.* 9*s.*, and the total of the exports to 7,493,933*l.* 5*s.*; so that the imports exceed the exports by 15,173,387*l.* 4*s.*

From various authorities, it appears certain, that Spain has, since 1788, exported to South America more wines, fruits, and manufactured productions, than formerly; it is equally certain, that she has also since imported a greater quantity of tobacco, sugar, coffee, and other commodities, from her American possessions, though these are still far from having obtained that degree of perfection of which they are susceptible; that, in short, the intercourse between the mother country and her colonies has become much greater than at any former period. Previous to 1778, twelve or fifteen vessels only were engaged in the colonial trade, and these never performed more than one voyage in the course of three years; but in 1791, 89 ships cleared out from different Spanish ports for South America.

It is not easy to ascertain the exact quantity of gold and silver drawn by Spain from the mines in her American colonies. Part of these metals is converted into current coin at Lima, Santa Fe, Carthagena, and especially in Mexico; but a part is also sent under the form of ingots, either clandestinely or legally, to the mother country. The most accurate information respecting this matter is, perhaps, to be found in the statement given by M. Helms, which makes the produce almost FIVE MILLIONS, in 1790, nearly three of which were in Mexico.

The following are the official registers of the coinage in Spanish America, from the first day of January to the last day of December, 1790:

	In Gold.	In Silver.	Total.
At Mexico,	628,044	17,435,644	18,063,688 piastres.
At Lima,	821,168	4,341,071	5,162,239
At Potosi,	299,846	3,983,176	4,283,022
At St. Jago,	721,754	146,132	867,886
Total	2,470,812	25,906,023	28,376,835

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To account for the great difference of produce from the mines of Mexico, and from those of Peru, Chili, and Buenos Ayres, Mr. Helms alleges the following reasons: 1. Because the kingdom of Mexico is much more populous than any other of the American provinces. 2. It is scarcely half the distance from the mother country, whence it is enabled the better to enforce obedience to the laws and regulations, habits of industry, good police, and economy. 3. The want of royal and private banks in Peru, where every thing is still in its primitive and chaotic state. And, lastly, on account of the great encouragement which the industrious miner readily obtains in every commercial house of Mexico. If, concludes Helms, the provinces of Peru, Chili, and Buenos Ayres, were in a similar favourable situation as that of Mexico, there is no doubt that in Peru alone, on account of its incomparably richer and more numerous gold and silver mines, four times the quantity of these noble metals might be obtained, and perhaps a still greater proportion, than what Mexico affords at present.

Since the discontinuance of the galleons, and of the great fairs at Panama and Porto Bello, the commerce of Peru has been augmented by the arrival of merchant vessels from Spain by the way of cape Horn. Yet, according to Helms, the freedom of the trade has overstocked the market with Spanish goods.

From the viceroyalty of La Plata hides and tallow form a considerable article of export. In 1792, there were shipped to the Spanish ports alone 825,000 hides; and in 1798 there were collected in Buenos Ayres and Monte Video a stock of *three millions* of hides. The *tea*, or herb of Paraguay, constitutes a principal branch of the trade of that country. Of this plant there are sent to Peru alone about 100,000 parcels, called *arrobes*, each weighing 25 lbs. of 16 oz. to the lb.; and the price of the *arrobe* is equal to 28 French livres, or 1*l.* 3*s.* 4*d.* sterling, which makes the total value of this merchandise sent to Peru, 116,666*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*

The people boast of innumerable virtues which this tree possesses: it is certainly aperient and diuretic; but the other qualities attributed to it are doubtful. The *Chapetons*, or European Spaniards, do not make much use of this drink;

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but the Creoles are passionately fond of it, inasmuch that they never travel without a supply of the herb; they never fail to drink an infusion of it at every meal, preferring it to all sorts of food, and never eating till they have taken this favourite beverage. Instead, however, of drinking it separately, as we drink tea in Europe, they put the plant in a calabash, mounted with silver, which they call *mate*: they add sugar to it, and pour on it hot water, which they drink off directly without waiting for a maceration, because the liquor would then become as black as ink. In order not to swallow the fragments of the plant which swim at the surface, they use a silver pipe, the top of which is perforated into a number of small holes, through which they suck the liquor without drawing in the plant. A whole party is supplied with the tea by handing round the same pipe and bowl from one to another, and filling the vessel up with water as fast as it is drunk out. The repugnance of Europeans to drink after all sorts of people, in a country where siphylitic diseases are very prevalent, had caused the introduction of small glass pipes, which had begun to get into use at Lima in the time of Frazier.

On an average of five years, ending in 1799, the total value of imports into Peru, taken at the European invoice prices, was 32,397,453 piasters. The exports in the produce of the country amounted, in an average of five years, ending in 1789, to 31,336,357 piasters.

We have no late returns of the state of the exports and imports of Spanish South America; but from various circumstances it may safely be concluded, that the commerce of these colonies is nearly doubled.

Government.—Spanish America is, or rather was, divided into four viceroyalties, of unequal dimensions; viz.

That of Mexico, or New Spain, comprehending New Gallia, New Biscay, New Navarre, New Leon, New Mexico, the Floridas, and the two Californias.

That of New Grenada, comprehending Terra Firma, Panama, Veraguay, and the province of Quito.

That of Lima, comprehending Peru and Chili.

And that of La Plata, or Buenos Ayres, comprehending Paraguay, Tucuman, and a part of the former Peru.

In order to facilitate the administration of justice, these provinces were divided into *audiencias*, which were again subdivided into *partidos*. They were also divided into military districts, which were under the authority of captains-general, governors, and commanders.

The viceroys maintained a splendid court, though their power was extremely limited, from the authority possessed by the judges, and from their not being permitted to interfere with the colonial treasures, or the military or marine forces.

The military department was much neglected in all the Spanish possessions; the militia being found sufficient to keep the Indians in subjection: and the marine was confined to ten corvettes, or armed galleons, stationed along a coast extending from 9 to 12,000 miles!

All colonial affairs are finally referred to the *council of the Indies*, which holds its sittings at Madrid, and of which the *minister of the Indies* is the perpetual resident.

History.—Peru and Mexico were the only countries in America that deserved the name of civilized kingdoms. Three citizens of Panama, Francis Pizarro, Almagro, and Ferdinand Locques, a priest and a man of considerable fortune, undertook the conquest of Peru. Pizarro, after a tedious navigation of two years, landed on the northern extremity of Peru; but was obliged to return without effecting any thing considerable. But, having obtained the approbation of the Spanish government, he again proceeded to the conquest of Peru, with 180 men.

The empire of Peru was at that time governed by a race of kings, which they called Incas, and which, claiming descent from the sun, were respected as divinities. When Pizarro landed, the unusual appearance of his men caused a general alarm. As usual in frightful rumours, new superstitions begin, or old ones are revived, to increase the confusion. There subsisted a tradition amongst the Peruvians, that one of their ancient princes had a dream, which he ordered carefully to be

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recorded. He imagined that he saw a man clothed all over even to his feet, with a long beard, leading in his hand an animal, such as he had never seen before: and that at the same time he was clearly informed of the will of the gods, that such a man should rule that country. A Spaniard, whom Pizarro had sent upon an embassy to Atabalipa, as soon as he was discovered leading his horse upon some occasion that made him dismount, agreed so well with this dream, that it is incredible how soon it spread into the the remotest parts of the country, and with how great a terror it struck the whole nation.

Atabalipa, the reigning Inca, sent ambassadors to Pizarro; and even went out to meet him with a vast number of attendants, to whom he gave the strictest charge upon no account to offer the least injury to the strangers, as they were those of whom his predecessor had foretold, and of the same divine original, children of the sun. But Pizarro, who advanced with other notions to the interview, soon convinced him that a contrary caution was more necessary. They met near a celebrated temple, the Spaniards drawn up in order of battle, and a party in ambuscade. This circumstance leaves us in no doubt as to the designs of Pizarro. The first person who addressed himself to the Inca was father Vincent, a friar, who was not ashamed to make his character the instrument of so base a crime. He advanced with a cross in his hand, and began a most unseasonable discourse upon the birth and miracles of Christ, exhorting him to become a Christian, on the pain of eternal punishment. Then he spoke with equal eloquence of the emperor of the Romans, pressing him with the same strength of argument to become a subject of that emperor; threatening him, in case of obstinacy, that God would harden his heart as he did Pharaoh's, and then punish him with the plagues of Egypt; with other miserable stuff, worse interpreted. The Inca, though utterly astonished at a matter so unaccountable, behaved with decency and gravity, telling him, that he believed that he and his companions were children of the sun; recommended himself and his subjects to their protection; and made no doubt but they would behave to them in a manner worthy the offspring of so beneficent a deity.

Whilst these discourses continued, the Spanish soldiers, whose least business to Peru was to hear sermons, observing a considerable quantity of gold in the neighbouring temple, had their soul immediately stirred up, and a party of them began to pillage it. The priests made some opposition. A disturbance ensued, and a great noise, which so alarmed our adventuring apostle, that he let fall his cross and bevy in his fright, and turned his back upon his intended proselyte. Those Spaniards who were not concerned in the pillage, seeing him fly, either that they judged the heathens had offered their priest some violence, or that Pizarro made use of this signal to them to fall on, immediately drew their swords, attacked the guards and attendants of the Inca, defenceless through a religious obedience to their sovereign's command, and, with every circumstance of the most deliberate and shocking barbarity, slaughtered 5000, which was near the whole number of the Indians, who fell without any anxiety for their own lives, pressing forward with all the zeal and officiousness of a most heroic loyalty to the chair of their prince, to expire at his feet; and as fast as one set of his supporters were slain, the others succeeded with eagerness to supply their places, and share their fate. The Inca was at last dragged down, and made a prisoner by an act of the most unparalleled treachery, executed with a cruelty that has hardly any example and can admit of no excuse. The plunder of his camp, rich beyond the idea of any European of that time, was their reward.

The valuable ornaments and furniture amassed by a long line of magnificent kings, with the hallowed treasures of the most venerated temples, were given up as a ransom for the Inca. But still Pizarro detained him a prisoner; and divided his immense spoils with the soldiers of Almagro, who having now joined him, his force was considerable; and all were elated with the golden prospects that were opened before them.

But this vast treasure, the capital object of all their labours and villainies, no sooner came into their possession, but in its consequences it was very near being the utter ruin of their affairs. It is said, and not improbably, that the whole exceeded the sum of 1,500,000 sterling, a sum vast at the present time;

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then it was a prodigy. On a dividend, after deducting a fifth for the emperor, and the shares of the chief commanders and officers, each private soldier had about 8000*l.* English money. They had now made a fortune even beyond their imaginations; but the soldiery was ruined, the greatest part of the army insisted upon being discharged, that they might enjoy their fortunes in quiet.

This proposal ill suited with the ambitious views of the commanders. Almagro was for proceeding in the usual way to enforce obedience by the severity of military discipline; but Pizarro opposed him. 'Let them go,' says he, 'they cannot do us better service: here we shall have them mutinous and cowardly soldiers; at home they will act for us as recruiting officers with great success; for when it shall be seen that common soldiers, of so little merit as they, have made such large fortunes, we shall not long want better men to supply their places.'

The desire of the soldiers was complied with, and as many as chose to go, who were no inconsiderable number, departed. In due time, the sagacious prophecy of Pizarro was accomplished, and their army never wanted reinforcements.

In the mean time, the unfortunate Atabalipa, the greatness of whose ransom only convinced the Spaniards of the necessity of never releasing him, endeavoured to take advantage of his captivity, to know the genius and manners of this people. Amongst all their accomplishments, there was none he so much admired as the art of reading and writing. This appeared almost incomprehensible to him, though he saw clearly the use of it. He was at a loss to know whether he should consider it as a natural endowment or an acquisition of art. To discover this, he one day desired a soldier to write the name of God upon his nail: he carried this about the army, desired several to explain it, which they all did, to his wonder and satisfaction. At last he shewed it to Pizarro, but Pizarro blushed, and could make nothing of it. The Inca then perceived it was no natural gift, but owing to education; the want of which he thus discovered in Pizarro, and slighted him for it. This mortified the general, and his disgust, joined to

his natural cruelty and a policy he thought he saw in the proceeding, made him hasten the fate he had some time before determined for his unhappy prisoner. That nothing might be wanting to the boldness and atrociousness of their barbarity, they proceeded against him by way of trial and by the forms of law.

A charge was exhibited, digested under several heads. 1st, For being an idolator. 2dly, For having many concubines. 3dly, For wasting the treasures of the kingdom, and raising taxes since the coming in of the Spaniards. And, lastly, For the murder of his brother Huescar. An attorney-general was appointed to manage the accusation, and an advocate appointed from amongst themselves assigned for his defence. In vain did the more numerous and better part of the army protest against this proceeding, and lodge an appeal to Spain; in vain did they allege their want of power to judge a foreign prince for any crimes, and the absurdity of the crimes with which this prince was charged. Before such judges, and with such an advocate to defend him, the Inca was condemned to be burned alive. To complete this violation and mockery of all laws, human and divine, the same father Vincent, who had so signalled himself upon a former occasion, was sent to comfort and instruct him in his last moments. The chief argument which he used to convert him to Christianity was, that, on his embracing the faith, instead of being burned, his sentence should be mitigated to strangling. The prince submitted to baptism, and was immediately strangled in prison. Pizarro gave the final stroke to his hardened and shameless villainy, by giving him a magnificent funeral, and going into mourning.

The death of the Inca induced the Peruvians to take arms against the Spaniards, who were obliged to listen to a treaty. During this interval of peace, Pizarro founded the famous city of Lima. But having received reinforcements, he recommenced the war, and took Cuzco, the capital of the empire. After this, the Peruvians again revolted, and besieged Cuzco with 200,000 men, which was defended by Pizarro with a garrison of 70 men till he was relieved by Almagro. The conquerors, who had quarrelled respecting the division of the

phended, had recourse to arms, and Pizarro was routed and fled with about 100 followers. But this man, with the most consummate cunning, recovered the shock, defeated the brave but credulous Almagro, who, at the age of 78 years, fell a victim to the barbarous policy of his fellow adventurer.

Whilst this civil war raged, the reigning Inca took a very extraordinary resolution. He disbanded his troops and retired to the mountains; 'because,' says he, 'whilst we are in arms, their fear of us will be the means of uniting the Spaniards; but if we disperse, they will certainly destroy each other.' A resolution this, which at first view has something masterly, but it is only when viewed in one light. It was also very ruinous to the Peruvians; that, happening to be divided amongst themselves when the Spaniards came in, they suffered them to interfere in their parties; but it was of yet worse consequence that, when the Spaniards were afterwards divided, they interfered themselves in the Spanish parties. Almagro and Pizarro had armies of Indians, by which those people were habituated to obey them, and to be interested in their success: this, joined to the want of any regular plan of defence on the part of their king and commanders, subdued that empire to Pizarro. But having achieved so great a conquest, it only made Pizarro acquainted with other great tracts which were rich, and might be added to them. He followed the tracks of Almagro into Chili, and reduced a considerable part of the country. Orellana, one of his commanders, passed the Andes, and sailed down to the mouth of the river of Amazonas; an immense navigation, which discovered a very rich and delightful country; but, as it is mostly flat, and therefore not abounding in minerals, the Spaniards then, and ever since, neglected it.

Pizarro, not content with a territory upwards of 800 leagues long, and of a prodigious breadth, richer such as none of the kings of his country had ever possessed, a jurisdiction little less than royal, and an absolute security from the extinction of the only person who had any pretensions against him, took a resolution entirely to cut off all that had ever adhered to his rival. Not satisfied with putting many to death, he issued a

proclamation, inhibiting, under the same penalty, that any person should harbour, or even relieve an Almagrian with the necessities of life. This party was yet numerous, though dispersed and lurking about the country. The heads of them, finding Pizarro implacable, entered into a conspiracy to murder him. They did not want adherents in the city, so that they found means of concealing themselves until their plot should be ripe for execution; but by some means Pizarro discovered their designs, and suffered them to know he had discovered them. Alarmed at this information, they saw nothing could happen but death at any side. Twelve of the chiefs marched into the streets at noon-day, with their swords drawn, crying out, 'Long live the king! but let the traitor die;' and, crossing the great square of Lima, made directly to Pizarro's palace; the rest followed in different parties. The people all the while suspended, and in that inactive amazement which the execution of a bold and sudden enterprise generally inspires, made no opposition. The conspirators secured the avenues; and Pizarro, not alarmed until he was surrounded by his enemies, fell under their swords, after having sold his life dearly.

When Pizarro had fallen, the natural son of Almagro was proclaimed governor. Shortly after, Vaca di Castro, who was appointed governor by the emperor, arrived, by whom young Almagro was defeated, taken, and beheaded. The severity, inflexibility, and disinterestedness, of the new governor, reduced the Spaniards to an entire subjection. But in the end disputes arose, and the colony became unsettled. Gonzalo, the brother of Pizarro, availed himself of the general discontent, and set himself at the head of a party, by which he acquired the government of Peru. Refusing to return to his allegiance, Peter de la Gasca, the governor of Mexico, landed in Peru with a strong force, defeated the insurgents, and executed Gonzalo and his associates. Thus fell the last of those that had a share in the reduction of the Peruvian empire.

The new governor, having by necessary severities quieted his province, took effectual care to heal its disorders by the arts of peace, and to complete what Castro had been obliged

to leave unfinished. He settled the civil government, the army, and the mines, upon such a basis as made the province worthy to be plundered by future viceroys. He carried over two millions to the royal treasury, paid all his debts, and sat down as poor in Spain as he had left it.

The reduction of the great empires of Peru and Mexico makes almost the only thing worth insisting upon in the American history. A few skirmishes with a savage people, and some voyages and discoveries exactly resembling each other, changing only the names and situations, is matter which contains very little of either curiosity or instruction. But as the convulsions that lately agitated Europe have also reached and affected the regions of South America, and portend some important change, it becomes necessary to notice these interesting movements.

In the month of June, 1806, a squadron under Sir Home Popham, having on board general Beresford and 1100 troops, appeared in the river La Plata, and after a feeble resistance from the Spaniards, took possession of Buenos Ayres. This town, at the time of its capture, possessed in its treasury and warehouses a large quantity of specie and valuable merchandise, belonging to the public companies or to the king of Spain, which was reasonably deemed fair booty to the conquerors, and a great part of which, to the amount of more than a million of dollars, was almost immediately embarked in the *Narcissus*, and dispatched, with intelligence of the success of the expedition, to England. Two hundred thousand dollars remained in the royal treasury, and the property in the public depots was estimated to amount to two or three millions.

The proceedings of Sir Home Popham and general Beresford were attended with a sense of honour and equity, highly gratifying to the feelings of Englishmen. Private property was held sacred by them. That part of the shipping in the river which consisted of coasting vessels, freighted with merchandise belonging to individual proprietors, and which was supposed worth nearly a million and a half of dollars, was delivered up with the most scrupulous and honourable correctness. Besides this security of private property, guaranteed in

the capitulation, and by a proclamation which speedily followed, the free exercise of religion was allowed to the inhabitants according to the established modes; the possession of their civil rights and immunities, and their forms of municipal and judicial administration were continued; heavy duties were taken off, or mitigated; a free trade was granted to them as it was enjoyed by the inhabitants of Trinidad, whose happiness under his Britannic majesty's government was held forth as an example of what might result to his new subjects of Buenos Ayres:—all were invited to join in promoting the public order and tranquillity, which the troops were in no instance suffered to molest; and the grand object of the new possessors appeared to be, to create that happy state of the public feeling, with respect to the government, which might supersede all exercise of violence, and which would flow from mild authority, and lead to willing obedience.

After these arrangements, every thing appeared very quiet; but Puiridon, one of the municipality, and colonel Liniers, a French officer in the Spanish service and on his parole, were actively employed in organizing an insurrection. Favoured by the weather, several thousands of armed men entered the town in different directions; and, avoiding an open engagement, joined the inhabitants in annoying the British troops from the churches and the tops of the houses. General Beresford, after a spirited resistance against the most overwhelming numbers, agreed to evacuate the town, and that his troops should be embarked for England as prisoners of war: but, contrary to the terms of capitulation, they were marched up the country.

Sir Home Popham, after this disaster, made an unsuccessful attack upon Monto Video. He next landed a detachment, which reduced the harbour and peninsula of Maldonado; a place which, from its strength and situation, was well calculated for assembling the ships and troops that were expected from England.

On the 5th of January, 1807, Sir Samuel Auchmuty landed with a strong force at Maldonado; and, after refreshing his troops, sailed, with a squadron under admiral Sterling, to the

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attack of Monte Video; which, after a vigorous siege, was gallantly carried by storm. This victory was followed by the arrival of general Whitlock, with a strong reinforcement; and who immediately proceeded, with the fleet under admiral Murray, to attempt the re-capture of Buenos Ayres.

The troops were landed about 20 miles from the town; but being unprovided with guides, and the commissary department being also improperly conducted, much fatigue and delay ensued: which gave the Spaniards time to collect their forces, and to strengthen their defences. The Spaniards' advanced posts were gallantly attacked and defeated. The troops, however, on entering the town, experienced the most determined resistance, being opposed by a heavy and continued fire of musketry from the tops and windows of the houses: the doors of which were barricaded in so strong a manner, as to render them almost impossible to force. The streets were intersected by deep ditches; in the inside of which were planted cannon, pouring showers of grape on the advancing columns; this was accompanied by musketry, hand-grenades, bricks, and stones, from the tops of all the houses; every householder, with his negroes, defended his dwelling, which was in itself a fortress: yet in defiance of this opposition, several columns took the important positions appointed them, though with the loss of 2500 men, in killed, wounded, and prisoners. After a pause, general Whitlock signed a treaty with general Liniers, the Spanish commander, whereby the British agreed to evacuate Monte Video, with all their other conquests in the La Plata, within two months from the date of the treaty.

Thus ended the impolitic attempt to add these vast and populous colonies to the crown of Great Britain. Had the British proclaimed the independence of this country, the result might have been very different: or even had they been content to hold Monte Video, from which commanding the trade of the interior, Buenos Ayres would, in the end, have found it necessary to come to terms of accommodation, highly to the advantage of British commerce.

The disposition to emancipate South America was first communicated to a British minister in the beginning of 1790, when

the measure was proposed to Mr. Pitt by general Miranda. It met, from that minister, with the most cordial reception; and, as the dispute respecting Nootka Sound was then subsisting, it was resolved, if Spain did not prevent hostilities by submission, to carry the plan into immediate execution. When an accommodation was effected, and peace at last decreed, Mr. Pitt still assured the general, that the scheme of emancipating South America was a measure that would not be lost sight of, but would infallibly engage the attention of every minister of this country.

The man by whom this important suggestion was made, and in whose breast the scheme of emancipation, if not first conceived, seems at least to have been first matured, is a native of Caraccas in South America, descended from one of the principal families of the country. At the early age of seventeen, he repaired to Spain, and, by the influence of his family, obtained a commission in the Spanish army. Early smitten by the love of letters, he was anxious to proceed to France for the prosecution of his education; but permission was denied him; and he was forced to bring the masters, whom he could not procure in Spain, from France at his own charges. It is an anecdote not unworthy of record, that when the inquisition ordered his books to be taken from him and burnt, he applied to count O'Reilly, inspector general of the Spanish army, to see if the order could not be recalled; but the inspector told him, that all he could do was to condole with him, for that the same misfortune had happened to himself.

When France and Spain resolved to take a share in the war which was carried on between Great Britain and her American colonies, it happened that Miranda was in that part of the Spanish army which was destined to co-operate with the French. Acting thus, and conversing with the members of a more enlightened nation than any he had yet seen, the ideas of the young American received that improvement after which he aspired; and, in a scene where the cause of liberty was the object of all men's zeal and enthusiasm, and in a country the situation of which in so many respects resembled his own, a similar destiny for this last was naturally presented to his

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wishes. So deeply was the impression struck, that he has dedicated to this one design almost the whole of his life, and has been the prime mover in every scheme that has been proposed for the emancipation of the Spanish colonies in America.

At the termination of the American war, he resigned his situation in the service of Spain, and repaired to Europe, with a view to study the institutions of the most enlightened nations, and to draw from them instruction for the benefit of his native country. For this purpose, he came first to Great Britain, and proceeded afterwards to Prussia, Austria, Italy, Greece, and a part of Turkey. He then proceeded to Russia, where he met with prince Potemkin at Cherson, whose notice he attracted; and by him was introduced to the empress at Kiow. A native of Spain, travelling in search of knowledge, and improved by it, appeared to her in the light of a phenomenon. She invited him to remain in Russia; for, in Spain, she said, he would be burnt;—Spain was not a country for him. When Miranda opened to her, in reply, the views to which he had devoted himself in behalf of his country, she manifested the strongest interest in the accomplishment of his scheme, and assured him, in case of his success, she would be the foremost to support the independence of South America. She transmitted a circular letter to her ambassadors in Europe, to afford him her imperial protection every where; and gave him an invitation to draw upon her treasury for his personal support.

It was after this tour through Europe, in which Miranda spent several years, that he returned, by the way of France, to England; and being, by his friend governor Pownall, introduced to Mr. Pitt, proposed to him the plan, of which the submission of Spain on the question at issue prevented the execution. At the time when the prospect was thus, for an indefinite period, closed upon him in England, and the first promising movements of liberty in France were attracting the curious from every quarter of the world, Miranda returned to witness the great scenes that were there passing, and to obtain, if possible, from France, in her new situation, the same favour to South America, which in her old she had bestowed upon the United States. By his companions in arms, whom he had

recently known in America, he was speedily drawn into some connexion with the great leaders at that time in public affairs; and when the revolution was first called upon to draw the sword, he was invited and prevailed upon to take a command in her armies.

It was while he was serving with Dumourier in the Netherlands, that the scheme for revolutionising Spain and her colonies was first conceived by the republican leaders. But Miranda thought the republicans were proceeding too hastily, and refused his co-operation. During some years subsequent to this occurrence, the matter was sunk in oblivion amid the violent struggles which agitated Europe. Many months had not elapsed when the reign of Robespierre began; and Miranda, with so many other virtuous men, were buried in the dungeons of the revolution. Though tried, and clearly acquitted by the revolutionary tribunal, which declared that not a shadow of suspicion attached to him, he was still detained in prison, and escaped the guillotine only by one of those accidents by which so many others were delivered up to it.

About the same time, or a little after, Miranda was met at Paris by deputies and commissioners from Mexico, and the other principal provinces of South America, who had been sent to Europe for the purpose of concerting with him the measures to be pursued for accomplishing the independence of their country. It was decided accordingly, that Miranda should, in their name, again repair to England, and make such offers to the British government as, it was hoped, might induce it to lend them the assistance requisite for the great object of their wishes; and it accorded with the plans of Mr. Pitt, at that time, to enter with promptitude into the scheme proposed for the emancipation of South America. The proposal was, that North America should furnish 10,000 troops, and the British government agreed to find money and ships. But the president Adams declined to transmit an immediate answer, and the measure was, in consequence, postponed.

In the beginning of 1801, during lord Sidmouth's administration, the project was again revived. The plans of government to be recommended to the people of South America,

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were considered and approved; even the military operations were sketched and arranged; and the preparations far advanced for the expedition. The preliminaries, however, of the peace of Amiens were signed; and the measure was put off to a future opportunity.

When war was again declared against France in 1803, the business of South America formed one of the principal designs of ministers; and measures were taken to carry it into effect, the moment that the peace which still subsisted with Spain should be broken. This event did not occur till 1804, when Mr. Pitt was again at the head of administration. The measure was now prosecuted with zeal; Lord Melville and Sir Home Popham were employed in arranging with general Miranda the whole details of procedure; when the execution was again suspended by the affairs of Europe, and by the hopes and exertions of the third coalition.

The prospect thus appearing shut upon them in Europe, the South American exiles from the provinces of Caracas and Santa Fe, residing in the United States of America, and in the island of Trinidad, pressed general Miranda, and at last prevailed upon him, to quit his residence in this country, and make an effort in their behalf through the medium of America alone. But on arriving there, the public aid of the government was refused, lest offence should be given to France. The hesitating and wavering policy of the British court also deprived Miranda of the succours he expected from the governor of Trinidad.

He sailed from Trinidad on the 24th of July, with nine ships of war, and arrived on the 2d of August off the city of Coro, where his troops were landed under cover of the vessels, and with very slight resistance. Coro was taken by assault, and some other trifling advantages were gained; but the progress of this enterprising general was soon checked by an irresistible force. Most of his adherents were taken, and he himself with difficulty escaped.

This expedition, however, revived and strengthened the desire of independence, which had been long cherished in the Spanish colonies; and which received additional stimulus

from the degraded and hopeless state the mother country exhibited.

This disposition was first evinced in the latter end of 1809, by the deposition of the archbishop of La Plata, who held the highest civil authority in La Paz; and the formation of a democratic government. This was followed by a movement of the inhabitants of the Caraccas, who seized their public functionaries, and forced them on board ship. The revolutionary spirit spread rapidly through the vast regions of Terra Firma, and reached the western confines of the continent. At Quito, upwards of 4000, of all sexes and ages, perished in the struggle; but the revolutionists at last triumphed. The adherents of Old Spain, however, which comprehended all the regular troops, and most of the priests and civil officers, formed a strong party, and kept possession of several important places.

When the Spanish nation rose in arms against the usurpation of Bonaparte, they were enthusiastically seconded by the South Americans. But the Cortes treated their generous fellow citizens in the colonies with neglect and contempt. They even manifested unequivocal symptoms of drawing tighter the bonds in which they had long been kept. The emissaries of Bonaparte in the colonies were thus enabled to form a strong party. Besides this, there were two other parties; one of independents, and a party desirous of retaining their allegiance to Ferdinand.

While the people of the Caraccas were still angry and disappointed by the imbecility, tyranny, and impolicy of the regency, intelligence arrived that all who had countenanced or adhered to the late revolutionary proceedings were proclaimed traitors; and that the ports were to be in a state of blockade till the province should acknowledge, not merely Ferdinand VII., but that the regency at Cadiz were his only true and legitimate representatives. In order to support this bold and obnoxious measure, the regency, to complete the proofs of their folly and imbecility, dispatched a lawyer of the name of Catavania, who, afraid to take up his abode in the Caraccas, came no further than Porto Rico; and from thence issued his

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That party in the Caraccas, which had long entertained the design of separating the province from the mother country, now conceived that the time was arrived when they could easily and safely carry their design into execution; for this purpose, they summoned a general congress of delegates from all the principal towns and districts which were favourable to their views. This congress met at Caraccas on the 2d of March, 1811. As it was still necessary, for some time at least, to preserve the appearance of loyalty and attachment to their sovereign, they took the oath of fidelity to Ferdinand VII., and declared their wish and resolution to continue connected and in amity with the mother country. At this conjuncture Miranda made his appearance; he had been long ambitious to bring about and secure the independence of the Spanish colonies; hitherto his attempts had not been successful; he was therefore eager to avail himself of these circumstances and events so favourable to his plans; and having procured himself to be elected for one of the most inconsiderable towns in the province, his influence and spirit soon began to manifest themselves. Before he appeared to animate and direct the insurrection, it had been marked with great mildness and moderation; and the movers and first leaders of it were content in cautiously and gradually advancing towards the attainment of the objects they were desirous to attain and secure. Far different was the character of the insurrection, and the behaviour of the leading members of the congress, after Miranda gained access to it.

One of the first fruits of this change of character appeared in the deputies, who so lately had renewed their oath of fidelity to Ferdinand, abjuring his authority; declaring themselves, and their country at the same time, absolved from all dependence upon or allegiance to the crown of Spain; while they constituted the provinces, of which they were deputies, into free and independent states, under the title and designation of the limited provinces of Venezuela.

A civil war with all its horrors and cruelties now commenced: each party proscribed the other, and inflicted the most summary punishment on those who fell into their power. Many persons were arrested and thrown into prison on suspicion; some were banished; others put to death; and in short all those scenes which characterised and disgraced the commencement of the French revolution, were acted in the Caraccas, with equal violence and ferocity, though in a more confined theatre. The European and Creole families in general, naturally were disposed to resist these proceedings; they of course felt the power and vengeance of Miranda and his partisans. Valencia, which is principally inhabited by old Creole families, at the commencement of the insurrection, had sent deputies to the congress; but afterwards disapproving of their proceedings, and especially of the declaration of independence, it deserted the party of Miranda. To punish it for this defection, he marched against it with a large body of troops, and inflicted on its inhabitants a most severe punishment.

These disturbances and violent proceedings naturally alarmed the governors of the neighbouring provinces. On their first breaking out, the viceroy of Santa Fe de Bogota ordered, in the most strict and peremptory manner, that all communication should be closed and cut off between his government and the insurgents. But his efforts to guard the provinces subject to his jurisdiction from the spreading and overwhelming evil were unavailing. In them the same causes existed, which had existed in the Caraccas, and produced there a separation from the mother country and a civil war: one party were afraid and suspicious of their magistrates and governors, as attached to the French interest; while another party were desirous of shaking off the authority of Spain. Under such circumstances, great caution, prudence, and moderation were necessary in order to preserve the public peace: unfortunately these qualities did not exist. On the contrary, the corregidor of Soconó, actuated by a rash and violent spirit, ordered the troops under his command to fire upon the populace, who had assembled, unarmed, but mutinous. Thus was the spark set

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to the inflammable materials, which had been long accumulating. The insurrection broke out and spread rapidly. The inhabitants of the neighbouring district, having learnt the outrage which the corregidor had committed against the people of Socono, came into the town in great numbers; and having compelled him to take refuge in a convent, starved him into surrendering. The town now threw off its dependence and allegiance; appointed a junta; and transmitted to the government of Santa Fe an account and vindication of its proceedings. Nearly at the same time, the populace of the capital of this province had manifested strong symptoms of disaffection and tumult: the viceroy therefore, unable to put down by force of arms the insurgents of Socono, consented that they should establish a junta, of which he was appointed the president.

For a very short time after these proceedings in Santa Fe, the insurgents appeared disposed to retain the show of allegiance to Ferdinand VII.: but an event which took place at Quito, and which excited universal detestation throughout Spanish America, made them throw aside the mask, and avow their determination to be free and independent of the crown of Spain. This event, so fatal to the cause and character of the mother country, was the massacre at Quito of a great number of the principal Creoles of that city, by a body of troops under the direction and in the service of the viceroy of Lima. As soon as intelligence of this massacre reached Santa Fe, the viceroy was deprived of his situation and authority, both as president of the junta and governor of the province. In order to follow the revolutionary course regularly and completely, the ancient name of New Granada was changed into Cundinamarca. The insurgents of this province, however, still stopped short of the proceedings of those of the Caraccas; for though they abjured the provisional governments of Spain, they acknowledged Ferdinand VII. as their legitimate sovereign: this remnant of loyalty so much displeased the insurgents of the Caraccas, that they remonstrated with them on the subject, declaring that they will acknowledge no form of government but what they make for themselves.

The events which have occurred in the province of Buenos Ayres afford another proof and example of the mischief and evil which have resulted from this revolutionary spirit. The town of Buenos Ayres had many peculiar causes of complaint against the government of Spain, besides causes which operated on her, as well as on the rest of Spanish America. The greatest number of its inhabitants are merchants: of course the absurd restrictions placed upon the commerce of her colonies by Spain were severely felt by them; and as the articles which they export are chiefly of a perishable nature, whatever suspends or interrupts commerce must fall heavily on them. Suffering from these circumstances, they had frequently complained of the monopoly of the mother country, as pressing on them with peculiar severity; nor were the other inhabitants of Buenos Ayres without their grievances and cause of complaint against the mother country. Creoles of the oldest families, and of the highest rank and character, saw themselves deprived of the offices of the state, in order that they might be filled by men of very doubtful character, of mean rank, and destitute of talents, from old Spain. In short, at Buenos Ayres, as in every other part of Spanish America, the conduct of the government of Spain was the same: it is difficult to pronounce or ascertain whether it was more unjust or impolitic; whether it was more calculated to injure the colonies or the mother country; whether it was the result of extreme folly or of extreme wickedness, or of both combined.

It is not to be wondered at, that in the town of Buenos Ayres the revolution was brought about and completed without any difficulty or resistance. The viceroy either perceiving objection and resistance useless, or disposed to coincide with the principles and views of the insurgents, gave up his authority quietly; but it was otherwise in the other parts of the province: they did not feel so acutely and extensively as Buenos Ayres the oppression of the mother country; nor were the inhabitants in general so much inclined to the principles on which the revolutionists of Buenos Ayres acted. This difference of opinion and conduct was principally visible at Monte Video; the town recognised the regency of Cadiz; a civil war

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commenced between it and Buenos Ayres; and while the latter besieged Monte Video by land, Monte Video, aided by the Spanish marine, the presence and influence of which had at first induced it to acknowledge the regency at Cadiz, threatened Buenos Ayres from the river. In the midst of this civil war, the British admiral and the British naval officers on that station, had a difficult and delicate task to execute: they were applied to by both parties, but very judiciously declined taking part with either; contenting themselves with protecting the British ships and merchants.

Besides Monte Video, Cordova, another town in the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, about 500 miles from it, in the interior, became the scene of a counter-revolution, under Liniers and other adherents of Spain. On many accounts this counter-revolutionary party was dreaded by the insurgents of Buenos Ayres; the leader of it, Liniers, was a person of great influence and considerable talents, he also was deservedly popular at Buenos Ayres. Many attempts were made to gain him over, but these failing, a large body of troops was dispatched from Buenos Ayres against Cordova: on their approach, the leaders of the counter-revolution, apprehensive either that the people were not able to cope with regular forces, or suspicious of their steadiness and attachment, precipitately fled, and attempted to reach the frontiers of Peru. In this attempt, however, they did not succeed: they were pursued and taken; and, without even the form of trial, put to immediate death. Liniers surrendered himself; but this did not save his life: two days after his surrender, he was shot through the head.

In the mean time, the viceroy of Lima, having received information of the revolutionary proceedings at Buenos Ayres, determined to crush them if possible; for this purpose he raised a considerable army, and marched towards the Andes. The army sent from Buenos Ayres to attack Cordova heard of the approach of the viceroy while they were at that city; and having completely succeeded in the object for which they were sent, their leader resolved to advance and meet the viceroy of Lima. The hostile armies met at Suipacha, in the beginning of November, 1810; an action took place, and the

insurgents were victorious: the consequence and the reward of their victory was, the possession of Potosi, and of the greater part of the upper provinces. The army of Peru, however, though defeated, was not destroyed, nor even greatly weakened or discouraged: they rallied; and on the 10th of June, 1811, completely defeated and dispersed the army of Buenos Ayres at Desaguadero.

But the state of the Spanish provinces in America was such, that no permanently beneficial effects to the counter-revolutionists could arise from their victories; for while they were pursuing or defeating one hostile army, another rose up: the victorious army of Peru were prevented from pursuing their advantage, and regaining possession of the country which they had lost in November, 1810, by the intelligence that an insurrection had broken out at Arequipa on the South sea, against which it was judged expedient that they should immediately proceed.

In the mean time, the war between Buenos Ayres and Monte Video continued, and was carried on with great exertion and implacability. We have already mentioned that the English wisely preserved a strict neutrality; at the same time they conducted themselves in such a manner, as for some time to prevent the hostilities from becoming violent and cruel. For a considerable length of time, Buenos Ayres seemed to gain upon Monte Video; although the latter, by her superiority at sea, and consequent command of the navigation of the river, frequently distressed Buenos Ayres very much. In the beginning of 1811, affairs took a different turn and assumed a different aspect. The regency sent out Elio, an officer of marine, a man of great activity and resolution, but of a violent temper and character: he at first attempted to persuade the junta of Buenos Ayres to receive and recognise him as viceroy of the province; failing in this attempt, he attacked their ships, destroyed their commerce, menaced the city itself with bombardment, and threatened to call in a Portuguese army from the Brazils to assist him in his designs, and in the support of his authority. He did not, however, content himself with these open and spirited measures; he had also recourse

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to intrigue, and contrived to introduce or secure partisans in Buenos Ayres itself. The junta found themselves in a most critical and perilous situation; threatened by a hostile army from without, and surrounded within by men whom they could not trust, and who were ready to betray the city into the power of Elío. In this emergency they recalled an army which they had sent to the Portuguese frontier of Paraguay, and sent it against Monte Video; and banished all Europeans who could not find security for their good behaviour.

After this the war languished. Several affairs took place, but nothing decisive occurred. At length, the government of Buenos Ayres succeeded in establishing a respectable marine, which was put under the command of one Brown, an Englishman. But subsequently this adventurer betrayed his trust, and sailed to the West Indies. However, the principal enemy of this republic was now unexpectedly subdued from another quarter, for an army of Portuguese took possession of Monte Video. The partisan Artigas on this moved around the surrounding country, from which he collected subsistence for his army.

At length, when the Bourbons were restored to the thrones of Spain and France, Ferdinand sent a formidable expedition under Morilla to deliver South America. But although the royal general commanded a body of veterans, he failed in reducing the more high-minded patriots, who foiled him in several engagements. However, having received some reinforcements, he succeeded in capturing the city of Carthagena, when he obeyed the mandates of his master, by sacrificing hundreds of the patriots, without distinction of age or sex. But this cruelty only tended to unite and exasperate the people, who flew to arms in every direction, and the victorious general found himself blockaded in this city. After a desperate conflict, he extricated himself, and retired into winter quarters.

In the mean time, thousands of gallant men, particularly Englishmen, whom peace had left without employment, flocked to the independent standard, and strengthened the army of Boliver. Admiral Biron also was indefatigable in organising

the Venezuelan fleet, which rode triumphant on the coast, and even carried the terror of the patriotic arms to the entrance of the harbour of Cadiz. In few instances, durat the Spaniards engage the republican vessels, which were mostly manned by English and American seamen.

The government of Buenos Ayres now found themselves at liberty to adopt measures in furtherance of the general cause; and accordingly an army was equipped and sent to liberate Chili, which had been subdued by an expedition sent from Spain. They were met on the frontiers by the royal army, and a battle took place: but the enthusiasm of the patriots was irresistible; the royalists were defeated and dispersed, and the fine province of Chili was instantly liberated.

Early in January, 1818, the hostile armies in the north of South America again came into contact, and the bloody Morilla was defeated near Calaboya, into which place he retired. He afterwards retreated upon Sombrero, followed by the victorious Boliver, who again defeated him in two actions, and then blocked him up in a most exposed and unhealthy position. The royalists made a most vigorous effort to extricate their main army; but a reinforcement of 8500 men were met upon their march, and the whole were either killed or taken. Such is the situation of the principal armies at present; and from the weakness and unpopularity of the Spanish government, the insubordination manifested by the troops, and the formidable supplies of men and arms procured by the patriots in England and Ireland, there remains but little doubt that the next campaign will establish the independence of the South Americans upon a firm basis.

During the successful career of Boliver in 1817, Sir Gregor Macgregor took Amelia island; but the government of the United States refused to recognise his authority, and this conquest was abandoned. The general then returned to England, purchased a great quantity of military stores, and raised a strong body of men, with which he again sailed to the scene of action. At Jamaica he was joined by great part of a disbanded regiment, and from hence he proceeded to Porto Bello, which he took by surprise. However, in a short time, either

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through negligence or treachery, he in his turn was surprised by the Spanish troops, and narrowly escaped on board of a vessel. Macgregor at the present is at Aux Cayes, with a fine brig and 120 men.

The revolution in Peru first broke out in La Paz, and afterwards in El Cusco, the ancient city of the Incas. But the patriots seem safe on the side of the South seas, being protected by lord Cochrane, one of the most able and gallant warriors that ever drew a sword.

Lord Cochrane has commenced that teasing sort of warfare for which he is so well qualified, and by which he kept the whole French coast in the Mediterranean seas in a state of alarm and anxiety all last war. His movements are made with the rapidity of an eagle; he has scarce pounced upon the place and made it his victim, before he replumes his wing and descends upon another, carrying all before him. His lordship's vessels, although heavy in guns, are light in their hulls, and incapable of lying alongside of batteries; therefore his attacks are more diversions and excursions for plunder, to accustom his men to harass and be harassed, than any serious desire of occupying the place he assails. He is incessantly training his men to the use of the pike, tomahawk, and broadsword, determined when he meets with an old Spanish ship, to attempt her by boarding at once, the sides of his ship being too weak for withstanding a cannonade. It is not forgotten by his men, that his lordship, in the Speedy brig of 14 guns and 45 men, boarded and carried the Elgama Spanish frigate of 38 guns and 300 men, and they prognosticate they will be now equally successful.

The squadron of his lordship bombarded Lima three times, with a hope of inducing the Spanish squadron to come out and give the attack; but the wily Donr chained their ships to the shore, and very quietly saw the houses knocked to pieces and the inhabitants killed, over their own mast heads. During the last attack, a gun vessel, mounting six carronades, pushed out of the harbour, and attempted to cover a ship of 400 tons burthen, whose cables had been cut by the shot from the O'Higgins, and was drifted into the open bay. Lord Cochrane

rane, in command of the boats of his squadron, captured the ship and sent her off to sea; he then made a dash at the gun vessel, and succeeded in bringing her off when she had taken shelter within pistol shot of a twelve gun battery; on board of the vessel were 212 men, in the boats with his lordship 42, and several of them boys. The loss on his part was 17 killed and wounded. The gun vessel, coppered and schooner-rigged, was immediately manned and commissioned by a lieutenant. The merchant ship was taken out to sea, her cargo was found to be very valuable, and she had in boxes nearly two million dollars, these were removed, a party of men sent on board, with a lieutenant, who has proceeded to the general rendezvous for more guns and hands; she is called the *Nostra del Carmen*, and is in effect a trading frigate, will mount 36 guns, and be a fine cruiser.

His lordship harangued his men, a motley crew of English, Spanish, mulattoes, and Americans, and distributed to each 100 dollars per man, saying he would trust to fortune for his share at a future day; the enthusiasm of his crews is only excelled by the state of discipline they are in. His lordship has burnt and destroyed six small armed vessels, and upwards of 20 traders, previously taking out of them every thing of value; he has also destroyed several small batteries on the coast and watch-towers. He is in daily expectation of the arrival of a frigate from the United States, formerly a British East India-man; it is said she carries 64 guns and 500 men, and will bring with her 15,000 stand of arms, and a complete battering train of artillery; thus a competent force awaits the arrival of old Spain's lazaretos and sinking hulks, of whom his lordship speaks with the greatest contempt. Attached to lord Cochrane's squadron, and spread over an extent of coast of more than 500 leagues, are 40 small half-decked vessels with a gun in the bow, commanded by petty officers, and about 20 men in each; these effectually enforce the blockade of the ports, and are known to have taken several valuable prizes.

A writer in the *Edinburgh Review* says, that in looking around for barriers to resist the spirit of military aggrandisement in Europe, and resources to supply those the channel of

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which are closed upon us, every eye, we believe, will rest on South America. 'A country,' he proceeds, 'far surpassing the whole of Europe in extent, and still more perhaps in natural fertility, which has been hitherto unfortunately excluded from the beneficent intercourse of nations, is, after a few prudent steps on our part, ready to open to us the immense resources of her territory, of a population at present great, and likely to increase with most extraordinary celerity, and of a position unparalleled on the face of the globe for the astonishing combination of commercial advantages which it appears to unite. From the maturity for some beneficent change, which circumstances and events have for a series of years been working in those magnificent regions, and from the mighty effects they are capable of yielding for the consolation of afflicted humanity, it seems as if that Providence, which is continually bringing good out of evil, were about to open a career of happiness in the new world, at the very moment when, by the mysterious laws of its administration, it appears to have decreed a period of injustice and calamity in the old.

'For the mighty benefits to be expected from a just and wise arrangement of the affairs of Spanish America, we are not left to the results of speculation, clear and unambiguous as they are; we can appeal to experience and to fact. We have the grand experiment of North America before us, which the inhabitants of the South are so ambitious to imitate. The states of North America were our own colonies, and they had been always beneficently administered; yet has their independence been far more profitable to us than their subjection. What is the result with regard to commerce alone?—the very extraordinary fact, that for several past years we have exported more goods of British growth and manufacture to the United States of America, than to the whole of Europe taken together. If such are the benefits resulting from the prosperity of the United States, how many times greater will be those which must necessarily flow from the prosperity of South America? How many times more extensive is the country which the Spanish Americans possess? That country, from enjoying a much greater diversity of climate compared with

Europe than North America, is much more richly provided with those commodities for which Europe presents the most eager demand. Of the soil of South America, a great part is much more favourable to cultivation, much more fruitful, and cleared by nations who had made some progress in civilization. Of all the countries in the world, South America possesses the most important advantages in respect to internal navigation, being intersected in all directions by mighty rivers, which will bear, at little cost, the produce of her extensive provinces to the ocean. If the population of the United States, amounting perhaps to 6,000,000 souls, afford so extraordinary a demand for British commodities, what may not the population of South America, extending already to no less than 16,000,000, be expected to afford? It is no doubt true, that the moral and intellectual habits of the people of South America are not so favourable to improvement as were those of North America. Their industry has been cramped,—their minds have been held in ignorance by a bad government; hence they are indolent and superstitious. But remove the cause, and the effects will cease to follow. So sweet are the fruits of labour, wherever the labourer enjoys them unimpaired, that the motives to it are irresistible,—and his activity may be counted upon with the certainty of a law of nature. The deduction, therefore, is so very small which, on this score, it will be requisite to make, that a very subordinate proportion of the superior advantages in soil and climate which the South American enjoys, will suffice to compensate the better habits with which the inhabitant of the United States commenced his career.

In respect to wants, the two countries eminently resemble one another. From the immense extent of uncultivated soil, which it will require many ages to occupy, the whole bent of the population will be turned to agriculture; and it will be their interest, and their desire, to draw almost the whole of the manufactured goods, which their riches will enable them to consume, from other countries. The country to which the greater part of this prodigious demand will come, is unquestionably Great Britain. So far before all other countries, in respect to manufacturing advantages, does she stand, that

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were the circumstances of Europe much more likely to encourage industry than unhappily they are, we could meet with no rival; and as we supply North America, so could we South, on terms which would infallibly draw to us the greater part of her custom.

In enumerating, however, the advantages of a commercial nature, which would assuredly spring from the emancipation of South America, we have not yet noticed the greatest perhaps of all,—the mightiest event, probably, in favour of the peaceful intercourse of nations, which the physical circumstances of the globe present to the enterprise of man:—we mean, the formation of a navigable passage across the isthmus of Panama,—the junction of the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. It is remarkable, that this magnificent undertaking, pregnant with consequences so important to mankind, and about which so little is known in this country, is so far from being a romantic and chimerical project, that it is not only practicable but easy. The river Chagre, which falls into the Atlantic at the town of the same name, about eighteen leagues to the westward of Porto Bello, is navigable as far as Cruces, within five leagues of Panama. But though the formation of a canal from this place to Panama, facilitated by the valley through which the present road passes, appears to present no very formidable obstacles, there is still a better expedient. At the distance of about five leagues from the mouth of the Chagre, it receives the river Trinidad, which is navigable to Embarcadero; and from that place to Panama is a distance of about 30 miles, through a level country, with a fine river to supply water for the canal, and no difficulty to counteract the noble undertaking. The ground has been surveyed, and not the practicability only, but the facility of the work, completely ascertained. In the next place, the important requisite of safe harbours, at the two extremities of the canal, is here supplied to the extent of our utmost wishes. At the mouth of the Chagre is a fine bay, which received the British 74 gun ships, in 1740, when captain Knowles bombarded the castle of St. Lorenzo; and at the other extremity is the famous harbour

of Panama, which is the great commercial port of the country.

of Panama. Nor is this the only expedient for opening the important navigation between the Pacific and Atlantic ocean. Further north is the grand lake of Nicaragua, which, by itself, almost extends the navigation from sea to sea. Into the Atlantic ocean it falls by a navigable river, and reaches to within three leagues of the gulf of Papagayo in the Pacific. Mr. Jeffery's tells us, it was the instruction of the king of Spain to the governor of St. John's castle, not to permit any British subject to pass either up or down this lake; "for if ever the English came to a knowledge of its importance and value, they would soon make themselves masters of this part of the country."

'We are tempted to dwell for a moment upon the prospects which the accomplishment of this splendid, but not difficult enterprise, opens to our nation. It is not merely the immense commerce of the western shores of America, extending almost from pole to pole, that is brought, as it were, to our door; it is not the intrinsically important, though comparatively moderate branch of our commerce, that of the South sea whalers, that will alone undergo a complete revolution, by saving the tedious and dangerous voyage round cape Horn:—the whole of those immense interests which we hold deposited in the regions of Asia, become augmented in value, to a degree which, at present, it is not easy to conceive, by obtaining direct access to them across the Pacific ocean. It is the same thing as if, by some great revolution of the globe, our eastern possessions were brought nearer to us. The voyage across the Pacific, the winds both for the eastern and western passage being fair and constant, is so expeditious and steady, that the arrival of the ships may be calculated almost with the accuracy of a mail coach. Immense would be the traffic which would immediately begin to cover that ocean, by denomination Pacific. All the riches of India and of China would move towards America. The riches of Europe and of America would move towards Asia. Vast depots would be formed at the great commercial towns which would immediately arise at the two extremities of the central canal;—the goods would be in a course of perpe-

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tual passage from the one depot to the other;—and would be received by the ships, as they arrived, which were prepared to convey them to their ultimate destination.

‘Is it too much to hope, that China and Japan themselves, thus brought so much nearer the influence of European civilisation—much more constantly and powerfully subject to its operation—would not be able to resist the salutary impressions, but would soon receive important changes in ideas, arts, manners, and institutions? The hope rests, at least, on such strong foundations, that it seems to rise even to a certainty;—and then what glorious results might be expected for the whole of Asia, that vast proportion of the earth, which, even in its most favoured parts, has been in all ages condemned to semi-barbarism, and the miseries of despotic power? One thing, at least, is certain, that South America, which stands so much in need of industrious inhabitants, would receive myriads of laborious Chinese, who already swarm in all parts of the eastern archipelago in quest of employment and of food. This, to her, would be an acquisition of incredible importance: and the connexion thus formed between the two countries, would still further tend to accelerate the acquisition of enlightened views and civilised manners in China herself.

‘Such are a few of the results which there is reason to expect from a regulation of the affairs of South America: Never, perhaps, was an opportunity offered to a nation, of effecting so great a change in behalf of human kind, as Great Britain, from a wonderful combination of circumstances, is now called upon, by so many motives, to help South America to accomplish. The measure has, for a considerable number of years, been mingled, in her councils, among the number of her resolves.

After reading this rapid sketch of the immense advantages to be derived from the establishment of independence in South America, a man may well view with astonishment the silly and impolitic bill which lately received the sanction of the British legislature, restraining British subjects from entering into the service of the patriots, or supplying them with warlike stores. The ill effect of this foolish measure is greatly aug-

mented, when the distressed state of trade and manufactures is considered; and the just displeasure of the Americans must be heightened, to witness English ships of war affording protection to the persons and treasures of their enemies.

According to a recent calculation, the following account has been given of the population and force of the South American republicans:

The republic of New Grenada and Venezuela: population three millions, and the army 25,000 effective men.

The republic of Rio de la Plata: the population three millions, and the army 30,000 effective men.

The republic of Chili: the population one million and a half; and the army 7000 disciplined men.

The republic of Peru: the population three millions, the strength of the army unknown.

PORTUGUESE DOMINIONS.

Extent and Boundaries. THE dominions in South America, held by the small kingdom of Portugal, extend from the frontier of Dutch Guiana, lat. 3 deg. north, to port St. Pedro, south lat. 22 deg., being 35 degrees, or 2100 geographical miles; and the breadth, from cape St. Roque to the furthest Portuguese settlement on the river of Amazons, called St. Paul de Omaguas, equals, if it do not exceed, that extent. This vast territory, rivalling the empires of antiquity, is still more unknown than the Spanish possessions; partly from the want of science and curiosity, partly on account of the thick forests which cover the expansive plains of the Maranon and its auxiliary streams. Though long in strict alliance with Portugal, we have little precise

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knowledge of Brazil; and still less of the interior country so absurdly called Amazonia, but more justly by the Spaniards the Land of the Missions. The chief city of Brazil was formerly Bahia or San Salvador, which has since yielded to Rio Janeiro. The others are Para and Cayta near the estuary of the Marañon, with a few small settlements on that river; Pernambuco, Sergippe, Paraíba, Villa Grande, &c.; the chief settlements of the Portuguese being only thinly scattered along the shores. The fanaticism of the Spaniards and Portuguese is an invincible obstacle to the population of some of the finest regions of the globe; while by the free admission of all sects, as in the territory of the United States, industry and population would increase with surprising rapidity.

Name.—Brazil, as is well known, derives its name from the wood so called, which is mentioned by Chaucer, and was known for centuries before. It is now divided into eight independent governments, besides that of Rio de Janeiro, of which alone the governor retains the style of Viceroy of the Brazils.

Mines.—Concerning the celebrated mines of Brazil there was little information, until Mr. Mawe, an English mineralogist, obtained permission from the prince regent at Rio de Janeiro to visit the principal gold and diamond districts. The gold mines are chiefly situated in the mountains, which give source to many streams that flow north and south into the Tocantine on one side, and the Parana on the other.

The mountain of Villa Rica, which, twenty years after its discovery, was reputed the richest place on the globe, owes its celebrity to a party of men, strongly imbued with that spirit of enterprise that characterised the Lusitanians of former days. They penetrated from their capital into these regions, braving every hardship, and encountering every difficulty which a savage country, infested by still more savage inhabitants, opposed to them. They cut their way through impervious woods, carrying their provisions with them, and occasionally cultivating small patches of land to afford them food to retreat to, in case of necessity, as well as to keep up a communication with their city, St. Paul's. Every inch of ground was disputed by the barbarous Indians, here called Bootocoodies,

who were constantly either attacking them openly or lying in ambush; and but too frequently succeeded in surprising some of them, or their negroes, whom they immediately sacrificed to their horrible appetite for human flesh. They believed the negroes to be the great monkeys of the wood. The bones of the unfortunate sufferers were frequently found exposed, shocking testimonies of the barbarity of their murderers, whom the Paulistas, roused to revenge, invariably shot, wherever they met them. These examples of vengeance answered their desired end: the Indians, terrified as well by the noise as by the fatal effect of the fire-arms, fled with precipitation, believing that the white men commanded lightning and thunder.

On reaching this mountain, the fame of their success brought great numbers of adventurers, between whom and the original discoverers several battles took place, until the government interposed, and took the mines under their own direction. Between the years 1730 and 1750, the mines were in the height of their prosperity; the king's fifth, during some years of that period, is said to have amounted to at least one million sterling annually. The mines which produced this immense wealth at length became gradually less abundant; and, as the precious metal disappeared, numbers of the miners retired, some to the mother country, loaded with riches, which tempted fresh adventurers, and many to Rio de Janeiro and other seaports, where they employed their large capitals in commerce.

Mr. Mawe enjoyed the opportunity of visiting the diamond works called Mandango, situated on the river Jigitonhonha, which employs 1000 negroes, and on particular occasions double that number. 'This rich river,' he observes, 'formed by the junction of a number of streams which will be hereafter noted, is as wide as the Thames at Windsor, and in general from three to nine feet deep. The part now in working is a curve or elbow, from which the current is diverted into a canal cut across the tongue of land round which it winds, the river being stopped just below the head of the canal by an embankment formed of several thousand bags of sand. This is a work of considerable magnitude, and requires the co-operation of all the negroes to complete it: for, the river being wide

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and not very shallow, and also occasionally subject to overflows, they have to make the embankment so strong as to resist the pressure of the water, admitting it to rise four or five feet.

The deeper parts of the channel of the river are laid dry by means of large caissons, or chain-pumps, worked by a water-wheel. The mud is then carried off, and the cascalhao is dug up and removed to a convenient place for washing. The stratum of cascalhao consists of the same materials with that in the gold district. On many parts, by the edge of the river, are large conglomerate masses of rounded pebbles cemented by oxide of iron, which sometimes envelope gold and diamonds. They calculate on getting as much cascalhao in the dry season as will occupy all their hands during the months which are more subject to rain. When carried from the bed of the river whence it is dug, it is laid in heaps containing apparently from five to fifteen tons each.

Water is conveyed from a distance, and is distributed to the various parts of the work by means of aqueducts, constructed with great ingenuity and skill. The method of washing for diamonds at this place is as follows:—A shed is erected in the form of a parallelogram, 25 or 30 yards long, and about 15 wide, consisting of upright posts which support a roof thatched with long grass. Down the middle of the area of this shed a current of water is conveyed through a canal covered with strong planks, on which the cascalhao is laid two or three feet thick. On the other side of the area is a flooring of planks, from four to five yards long, imbedded in clay, extending the whole length of the shed, and having a slope from the canal, of three or four inches to a yard. This flooring is divided into about twenty compartments or troughs, each about three feet wide, by means of planks placed on their edge. The upper end of all these troughs (here called canoes) communicate with the canal, and are so formed that water is admitted into them between two planks that are about an inch separate. Through this opening the current falls about six inches into the trough, and may be directed to any part of it, or stopped at pleasure, by means of a small quantity of clay.

Along the lower end of the troughs a small channel is dug to carry off the water.

On the heap of *cascalhao*, at equal distances, are placed three high chairs for the officers or overseers. After they are seated, the negroes enter the troughs, each provided with a rake of a peculiar form and short handle, with which he rakes into the trough about 50 or 80 pounds weight of *cascalhao*. The water being then let in upon it, the *cascalhao* is spread abroad and continually raked up to the head of the trough, so as to be kept in constant motion. This operation is performed for the space of a quarter of an hour; the water then begins to run clearer, having washed the earthy particles away, the gravel-like matter is raked up to the end of the trough; after the current flows away quite clear, the largest stones are thrown out, and afterwards those of inferior size, then the whole is examined with great care for diamonds. When a negro finds one, he immediately stands upright and claps his hands, then extends them, holding the gem between his forefinger and thumb; an overseer receives it from him, and deposits it in a gamella or bowl, suspended from the centre of the structure, half full of water. In this vessel all the diamonds found in the course of the day are placed, and at the close of work are taken out and given to the principal officer, who, after they have been weighed, registers the particulars in a book kept for that purpose.

When a negro is so fortunate as to find a diamond of the weight of an octavo ($17\frac{1}{2}$ carats), much ceremony takes place; he is crowned with a wreath of flowers, and carried in procession to the administrator, who gives him his freedom, by paying his owner for it. He also receives a present of new clothes, and is permitted to work on his own account. When a stone of eight or ten carats is found, the negro receives two new shirts, a complete new suit, with a hat and a handsome knife. For smaller stones of trivial amount proportionate premiums are given. During my stay at Tejuco, a stone of $16\frac{1}{2}$ carats was found: it was pleasing to see the anxious desire manifested by the officers, that it might prove heavy enough to entitle

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the poor negro to his freedom; and when, on being delivered and weighed, it proved only a carat short of the requisite weight, all seemed to sympathise in his disappointment.

Many precautions are taken to prevent the negroes from embezzling diamonds. Although they work in a bent position, and consequently never know whether the overseers are watching them or not, yet it is easy for them to omit gathering any which they see, and to place them in a corner of the trough for the purpose of secreting them at leisure hours, to prevent which they are frequently changed while the operation is going on. A word of command being given by the overseers, they instantly move into each other's troughs, so that no opportunity of collusion can take place. If a negro be suspected of having swallowed a diamond, he is confined in a strong room until the fact can be ascertained. Formerly the punishment inflicted on a negro for smuggling diamonds was confiscation of his person to the state: but it being thought too hard for the owner to suffer for the offence of his servant, the penalty has been commuted for personal imprisonment and chastisement. This is a much lighter punishment than that which their owners, or any white man, would suffer for a similar offence.

There is no particular regulation respecting the dress of the negroes: they work in the clothes most suitable for the nature of their employment, generally in a waistcoat and a pair of drawers, and not naked, as some travellers have stated. Their hours of labour are from a little before sun-rise until sun-set, half an hour being allowed for breakfast, and two hours at noon. While washing they change their posture as often as they please, which is very necessary, as the work requires them to place their feet on the edges of the trough, and to stoop considerably. This posture is particularly prejudicial to young growing negroes, as it renders them in-kneed. Four or five times during the day they all rest, when snuff, of which they are very fond, is given to them.

What is termed the Diamond ground extends about 60 leagues from north to south, and about eight from east to west. It was first explored by some enterprising miners from

Villa do Principe, a few years after the establishment of that town. The number of diamonds sent over during the first 80 years after the discovery is said to be almost incredible, and to exceed 1000 ounces in weight. This supply could not fail to diminish the general value of diamonds, as none had ever before been known to come from any other part of the globe, except India, where the Brazilian diamonds were afterwards sent, and found a better market there than in Europe.

About the year 1778, government took the management of the mining district into their own hands. In its present state the establishment appears to produce much greater wealth than it actually does. During a period of five years, from 1801 to 1806 inclusive, the expenses were 804,000*l.*; and the diamonds sent to the treasury at Rio de Janeiro weighed 115,675 carats. The value of gold found in the same period amounted to 17,800*l.* sterling, from which it appears that the diamonds actually cost government 38*s.* 9*d.* per carat. These years were esteemed singularly productive; the mines do not, in general, yield to government more than 80,000 carats annually. Exclusive of this amount, there is a vast quantity smuggled.

'The collection of diamonds,' says Mr. Mawe, 'now in the possession of the prince regent, is unequalled in number, size, and quality, by that of any potentate in the world; and I am credibly informed, that it exceeds in value three millions sterling.'

Besides iron and precious stones, galena or sulphurite of lead, as also antimony, platina, and native bismuth, is found in considerable quantities. Copper is very scarce; and scarcely any tin, or cobalt, has been met with.

Agriculture.—In this extensive empire, land is granted in large tracts, on proper application; and we may naturally suppose that the value of these tracts depends more or less upon their situation. It therefore becomes the first object of a cultivator, to look out for unoccupied land as near as possible to a large town; good roads and navigable rivers are the desiderata next in point of consequence which he attends to. When he has made choice of a situation, he applies to the go-

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vernor of the district, who orders the proper officers to mark out the extent required, generally a league or a league and a half square, sometimes more. The cultivator then purchases as many negroes as he can, and commences his operations by erecting habitations for them and himself, which are generally miserable sheds, supported by four posts, and commonly called ranchos. His negroes are then directed to cut down the trees and brushwood growing on the land, to such an extent as he thinks they will be able to manage. This done, they set fire to all they have cut, as it lies on the ground. Much of the success of his harvest depends upon this burning; if the whole be reduced to ashes, he expects a good crop; if, through wet weather, the felled trees remain only half burnt, he prognosticates a bad one. When the ground is cleared, the negroes dibble it with their hoes, and sow their maize, beans, or other pulse; during the operation, they cut down any thing very much in the way, but never think of working the soil. After sowing as much seed as is thought requisite, they prepare other ground for planting cassada, here called mandioca, the root of which is generally eaten as bread by all ranks in Brazil. The soil for this purpose is rather better prepared; it is raked up in little round hillocks, not unlike mole-hills, about four feet asunder; into which are stuck cuttings from branches of the plant, about an inch thick, and six or eight long; these soon take root, and put forth leaves, shoots, and buds. When enough has been planted for the entire consumption of the farm, the owner, if he is rich enough, prepares means for growing and manufacturing sugar. He first employs a carpenter to cut wood, and build a mill with wooden rollers for crushing the canes, by means of water if a stream is at hand, if not, by the help of mules. While some of the negroes are assisting the carpenter, others are employed in preparing the ground in the same way as for mandioca. Pieces of cane containing three or four joints, and in length about six inches, cut from the growing stem, are laid in the earth nearly horizontally, and are covered with soil to the depth of about four inches. They shoot up rapidly, and in three months have a bushy appearance not unlike flags; in twelve or fifteen months

more they are ready for cutting. In rich virgin soil it is not uncommon to see canes twelve feet high, and astonishingly thick.

The Indian corn and pulse are in general ripe in four months or eighteen weeks. The average return is two hundred for one; it is a bad harvest when it falls short of one hundred and fifty. The mandioca is rarely ready to take up in less than eighteen or twenty months; if the land be suitable, it then produces from six to twelve pound weight per plant. They grow very little indigo in this neighbourhood, and what they have is of indifferent quality. Their pumpkins are of enormous size, and sometimes are served up as table vegetables, but more frequently given as food to the horses. Melons here are scarcely palatable.

In no branch of husbandry are the farmers so defective as in the management of cattle. No artificial grasses are cultivated, no enclosures are made, nor is any fodder laid up against the season of scarcity. The cows are never milked regularly; they seem to be considered rather as an incumbrance to a farm than a valuable part of the stock. They constantly require salt, which is given them once in fifteen or twenty days, in small proportions. Their dairies, if such they may be called, are managed in so slovenly a manner, that the little butter that is made becomes rancid in a few days, and the cheese is good for nothing. In this essential department they are deplorably deficient; rarely indeed is there to be seen a farm with one convenience belonging to it. For want of proper places in which to store their produce, they are obliged to lay it in promiscuous heaps; and it is not uncommon to see coffee, cotton, maize, and beans, thrown into the corners of a damp shed, and covered with a green hide. One half is invariably spoiled by mould and putridity, and the remainder is much deteriorated, through this idle and stupid negligence.

They feed their pigs on Indian corn in a crude state; the time for confining them to fatten is at eight or ten months old; and the quantity consumed for the purpose is eight or ten Winchester bushels each. When killed, the lean is cut off the sides as clean as possible, the fat is cured with very little

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salt, and in a few days is ready for market. The ribs, chine-bone, and lean parts, are dried for home consumption.

The farm-houses are miserable hovels of one story, the floor neither paved nor boarded, and the walls and partitions formed of wicker-work plastered with mud, and never under-drawn. For an idea of the kitchen, which ought to be the cleanest and most comfortable part of the dwelling, the reader may figure to himself a filthy room with an uneven muddy floor, interspersed with pools of slop-water, and in different parts fire-places formed by three round stones to hold the earthen pots that are used for boiling meat; as green wood is the chief fuel, the place is almost always filled with smoke, which, finding no chimney, vents itself through the doors and other apertures, and leaves all within as black as soot.

The horses are very fine, and in general docile; when well trained they make excellent chargers. Their size is from 12½ to 14½ hands, and they vary in price from three pounds to twelve. Mules are considered as more useful beasts of burden. The breed of sheep is quite unattended to, and mutton is rarely or never eaten. Here is a very fine and large breed of goats, whose milk is generally used for domestic purposes. The dogs are very indifferent, and of no distinct race.

The market is generally well supplied; and in the fruit seasons is stored with pines, grapes, peaches, guavas, bananas, a few apples, and an enormous quantity of quinces. Esculent plants are grown in great profusion and variety. Here is a favourite bulbous root called the cara, which is equal to the best potatoe, and even more farinaceous; it grows to about five inches in diameter, and affords excellent food either boiled or roasted. Here are fine cabbages, salad-herbs, turnips, cauliflowers, artichokes, and potatoes; the latter, though very good, are little used: the sweet potatoe is in greater request among the natives. Maize, beans, green peas, and every species of pulse, flourish amazingly. Fowls are cheap, being from three-pence to six-pence each; small pigs from one to two shillings; and fitches of bacon, cured after the mode of the country, at about two-pence per pound. Turkeys, geese,

and ducks, are abundant, and reasonable in price; the latter are of the Muscovy breed, enormously large, some weighing ten or fourteen pounds. Here is a singular breed of cocks: they resemble the common English in plumage and shape, but they crow very loud, and continue their last note for a minute or two; when their voice is good, they are much esteemed, and are sent for as curiosities from all parts of Brazil. The cattle are in general good, considering that so little attention is paid to feeding them; when their pastures are full of grass, they are tolerably fat, but when otherwise they become lean. A drove may be bought at twenty-four or thirty shillings a head; beef at about a penny or three halfpence per pound. The curriers have a singular method of blackening cow-hides and calf-skins: when they have prepared them for that operation, they search for some mud-hole at the bottom of a ferruginous stratum, a ditch for instance; with the mud they cover that side of the skin required to be stained; and they prefer this material to the solution of copperas, probably with reason, as the sulphate of iron, formed by the decomposed pyrites, acts more mildly in this state than when applied in the common way.

Population.—The population of this large portion of South America has not been accurately detailed. According to Staunton, the whites in the Brazils were computed at 200,000, and the negroes at 600,000. Pinkerton supposes that the Portuguese and their descendants cannot amount to half a million, and the natives three or four millions. But, from the observations of Mr. Mawe, it would seem that the Portuguese are more numerous, and the natives considerably less, than this statement would make them.

Manners.—The manners of the European settlers will be noticed in describing the towns which they inhabit. The indigenes are said to be irreclaimable savages, under the middle size, muscular, but active; of a light brown complexion, straight black hair, and long dark eyes. They chiefly subsist apart, on the coast between Janeiro and San Salvador. Their language has not been investigated by the incurious Portu-

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guano, who seem destined by nature to cover the faults of the Spanish colonists, and to evince that even European nations may be found destitute of knowledge and intelligence.

Cities and Towns.—The city of *Rio Janeiro*, or *St. Sebastian*, is charmingly situated on a projecting quadrangular promontory of an irregular form, three of whose sides are opposed to the harbour, and the fourth sheltered from the prevailing westerly blasts by a screen of high hills well covered with wood. The side of the town, which is next to that part of the harbour where the shipping usually lie at anchor, is nearly a mile and half in length, and the depth inwards about three-fourths of a mile. The northern angle of the promontory is a bold broken eminence, on one point of which there is a regular fortification, and on the other a convent of Benedictine monks, which, being also surrounded with lines of defence, is actually as well as metaphorically a church militant. These heights completely command the town and the anchorage; and they appear to command also, at least they are upon a level with, the strongest work in the harbour, on which the defence of the place is thought principally to depend. This is the *Ilha das Cobras*, or Snake island, a rock about 80 feet high at the point on which the citadel stands, and slanting to eight at the opposite end: its length is 300 yards; and it is detached by a narrow but very deep channel from the eminence on which the Benedictine convent is situated. Round every side of this strongly fortified island, and close to its shores, ships of the greatest draught of water may lie in perfect security. Here also are a commodious dock-yard, an arsenal of naval stores, a sheer hulk, and a wharf for heaving down and careening shipping. The largest fleets, however, may anchor in this capacious harbour, entirely out of the reach of any of the guns that are mounted on the forts.

On landing from the harbour, the first object in the town that catches the attention is a handsome square, surrounded on three of its sides with buildings, and the fourth open to the water. Along this side is erected a noble stone quay, with flights of steps at each extremity and in the centre, the last of which is the common landing-place. When this line of ma-

sonry shall be extended the whole length of the town, which is intended to be done, it will serve not merely as an ornament and convenience, but as a considerable defence against the attempt of an enemy to land. Near the central flight of stairs is a quadrangular obelisk, throwing, from each of its four fronts, a constant stream of pure limpid water, for the use of the lower part of the town and of the shipping in the harbour. The upper side of the square, facing the harbour, is entirely occupied by the palace of the viceroy, a long plain building, neither remarkable for elegance of design nor peculiarity of construction.

The palace, the obelisk, and the pier, are all built with hewn blocks of granite; and the surface of the square is a solid floor of the same material, sprinkled over with quartzose sand. The granite being of that kind which contains a large proportion of glistening mica, is highly injurious to the eye, which is scarcely able to bear the dazzling rays of the sun playing throughout the whole day on one side or other of this open area—glaring emblem of the brilliant exploits of the Portuguese nation in earlier times!

Many of the houses in St. Sebastian are far from being contemptible; they are mostly two stories high, covered with tiles, and have wooden balconies extending in front of the upper stories; but the best of them wear that dull and gloomy appearance, which all buildings must necessarily have whose latticed windows supply the want of glass. The streets are in general tolerably straight, some of considerable width, though mostly narrow. The principal ones are paved on both sides with broad flag stones of granite. The refinement of a *trottoir*, so rarely met with out of England, was not expected to be found in a foreign settlement of Portugal. The shops are large and commodious, generally well stocked with the manufactures of Europe, chiefly those of Great Britain, which, after being exhibited in the windows of the capital and the principal cities and towns of the empire till their fashion is out of date, are shipped off to the trading nations on the continent, and from thence to their foreign settlements. In the catalogue of wares exhibited in the shops of Rio de Janeiro, English quack

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This place is said to be unhealthy; and instances of longevity are very rare. The unhealthiness may arise, however, more from local and temporary circumstances, than from the necessary influence of the climate. Water is suffered to stagnate in marshes near the town, though they might easily be drained, or filled with earth. Strangers, particularly, feel their tormenting consequences in the infinite swarms of musquitoes, or large gnats, which attack them for some time after their arrival. This is not the only annoyance to strangers, in the night, at Rio; for there, as in Lisbon, according to the observation of lord Kaims, the wheels of carts are purposely constructed to make a most harsh and croaking noise, to prevent the devil from harming the cattle that are yoked to them. The fertile powers of the imagination could scarcely have devised a more effectual method of producing a horrid din.

No real or fancied danger, however, curbs the propensity of all classes of society here towards gaiety and pleasure. There are three convents for men, and two for women, in this place; but little is said to be practised, in any of them, of the austerity and self-denial supposed to be intended by their original institution. Though the conquest of the country originally was undertaken with the professed intention of converting the natives to Christianity, and ample endowments have been made for maintaining friars to preach the gospel to those infidels, yet not one of the former was now engaged in such a troublesome, unsafe, and, perhaps, hopeless enterprise. Indeed, a few Italian missionaries residing here, took pains to send amongst the Indians such of that tribe who frequent Rio, as they were enabled to gain over to their faith, by presents as well as by persuasion, in order, by that means, to endeavour at converting the Indians dispersed throughout the country. Neither the friars nor the nuns of this place seem at all disposed to run into the gloomy excesses of devotion; and nothing can be more sprightly than the conversation of the latter with strangers at the convent gates. The men are, certainly, not corrupted by the writings of free-thinkers. No such exist

in the language of the country; and few Portuguese are acquainted with any other. There are but two booksellers in Rio, whose shops contain only books of medicine and divinity. But the religious system, which held its empire there with such happy effects so long, bears now some resemblance to a machine, of which the spring, by its own internal working, is slackened at length, and wearing out. No inquisition, or tribunal of the holy office, as it is called, is established in the Brazils. The ceremonies of religion are, however, regularly kept up, and even multiplied. In the day time, bells and sometimes sky-rockets announce, at every hour, some solemnity performing in the churches; and after sunset the streets are crowded with processions. At every corner is stuck up, in a glass case, the image of the Virgin Mary, to which homage is regularly paid by those who pass it.

'In one part of the harbour of Rio,' says Staunton, 'not far from the town, at a place called Val Longo, are the warehouses for the reception, and preparation for sale, of the slaves imported chiefly from Angola and Benguela on the coast of Africa. This spot was appropriated to the purpose of cleansing, anointing, fattening, rendering sleek and saleable, and concealing the defects of, this class of beings, who seemed little sensible of the humiliation of their condition. About 5000 were usually sold, every year, at Rio, out of 20,000 purchased for the whole of the Brazils. The average price was about twenty-eight pounds sterling each, before they were shipped from Africa. A duty of 10,000 reis a head is paid to the queen of Portugal's agent there. The whole amounted to about 60,000*l.* a year, which goes into her privy purse, and is not considered as part of the public revenue. In the whole of the Brazils there were supposed to be, at least, 600,000 slaves, born in Africa, or descended from those who were. The whites were computed to amount to about 200,000. The proportion of blacks to whites in the town of Rio was supposed to be at least 40,000 of the former, including such as had been emancipated, to about 8000 of the latter.'

St. Salvador is the capital of the *capitania* of Bahia, and is also called *Cidade de Bahia*; it was originally the seat of the

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supreme government of Brazil. It consists of two parts, one built on low ground near the shore, where the commerce is carried on, and the other on a high hill, which being considered the most healthy, is the residence of all the people of consequence. Its population is said to be nearly equal to that of Rio de Janeiro, and is stated as not less than 70,000 souls. The houses are built with latticed windows and balconies, similar to those in Rio de Janeiro. The churches are the public buildings most worthy of notice: they are said to be richly ornamented within. The government of the city is vested in a viceroy, or governor, who is nominated by the court for three years. Here all law proceedings, civil and criminal, come before the respective magistrates, whose sentence is in general final, though appeals in certain cases may be made to the court at Rio de Janeiro.

The town is tolerably defended, also the bay, as well as circumstances will permit. On the shore is a royal arsenal, and numerous houses for stores, &c. The custom-house and wharfs are conveniently situated. Ships of war have been built here, also many large and fine vessels for the merchant service. For these purposes, a large supply of fine timber was readily obtained from the interior by the number of fine rivers which flow into the bay. The wood holds iron better, and is superior to our oak.

The manners and customs of the people differ little from those of the inhabitants of the capital; but it is said that in the best societies here, more gaiety and refinement prevail, and the higher classes are more sociable, than in Rio de Janeiro. A taste for music is general: there are few houses without the guitar, and all the more respectable families have piano-fortes. The ladies dress in the English style, and ornament themselves with gold chains: they wear very few diamonds; their favourite gem is the chrysolite. For dishabille at home they wear a kind of loose dress, over which they throw a veil on the entrance of strangers. They are considered as far less industrious than the females of the southern districts. The domestic dress of the men consists of a jacket and loose trowsers, made of light printed cotton. Religious processions take place

here, as in Rio de Janeiro, on great festivals and rejoicing days; and these festive occasions are distinguished by various amusements which continue from morning to night. At these times the Brazilians have a custom of covering the walls and balconies of their houses with beautiful silks made and ornamented for the purpose. One of the most memorable seasons of rejoicing, of late years, was when the prince touched at this city on his voyage to Rio de Janeiro, and remained several days. The inhabitants testified their loyalty and attachment to him by every public demonstration of joy, and by a display of all the grandeur and magnificence which they had means to furnish. As a more solid proof of their attachment and regard, they unanimously voted to subscribe a sum equal to half a million sterling to build a palace for the royal family, if the prince would condescend to reside among them.

The climate is always warm, but is refreshed by the sea-breeze, and is in some degree tempered by the long absence of the sun, the nights being almost of uniform length throughout the year. Though hotter than Rio de Janeiro, Bahia is considered much more healthful, having a more airy situation, and being better supplied with water. The practice of bathing is very general, and most of the houses have conveniences for this purpose.

Pernambuco, the capital of the *capitania* of that name though situated nearly in the latitude of eight degrees, is considered very healthy. The town is built on a rising ground, much exposed, and constantly refreshed by the sea-breeze. It has many excellent edifices, and is supposed to contain more opulent merchants, in proportion to the population, than any other place in Brazil. It produces vanilla, cocoa, and a considerable quantity of sugar; but the chief article of its trade is cotton, which for many years had the reputation of being superior to any other, but of late it has much deteriorated, from neglect, either in the growth, or in the gathering the pods and cleaning it from the seeds, or probably from general inattention to the whole management of it.

Para is also the chief town of a *capitania*, and is situated on the river Tocantins, the navigation of which is difficult,

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and is seldom attempted, except by small craft: the *Constance* sloop of war with great care sailed up it, and anchored near the town, several days previous to the expedition against Cayenne. The town may contain 10,000 inhabitants, who are in general very poor, probably from want of commerce.

The port of *Rio Grande* is situated about 32 deg. south; it is dangerous to enter, first from its being shoal water, and next, from a violent sea always running, and from the shifting of the sands. Notwithstanding these inconveniences, there is a great trade carried on from this place to all the ports of Brazil, in brigs and small vessels that do not draw above ten feet water. After passing the bar, which is long, they enter into an inland sea, or lagoon, of deep water, and navigate to the north and west to its head, where the principal river runs into it. To the southward is the lagoon Meni, and the neutral ground, a little to the southward of which is the Spanish fortress of Santa Teresa, lately put in repair. The vicinity of Rio Grande is extremely populous. The principal occupations of the inhabitants are, the breeding of cattle, for which the immense tract of pasture land is so well calculated; the drying and preparing of hides; and the making of *charque*, or what is called, in the river Plata, jug-beef. The quantity of hides exported from hence is almost incredible: they furnish many vessels with entire cargoes, which are carried to the northern ports, and from thence embarked for Europe. The annual average may be estimated at not less than 300,000.

Santos is a place of considerable trade, being the store-house of the great captaincy of St. Paul's, and the resort of many vessels trading to the Rio de la Plata. It is tolerably well built, and its population, consisting chiefly of merchants, shopkeepers, and artificers, amounts to 6 or 7000 souls. The situation is by no means healthy, as the country around it is low, woody, and frequently deluged with rain, by reason of the high mountains in its vicinity, which impede the passage of the clouds.

St. Paul's is situated on a pleasing eminence of about two miles in extent, surrounded on three sides by low meadow land, and washed at the base by rivulets, which almost inau-

late it in rainy weather; it is connected with the high land by a narrow ridge. The rivulets flow into a pretty large stream called the Tieté, which runs within a mile of the town, in a south-west direction. Over them there are several bridges, some of stone and others of wood, built by the late governor. The streets of St. Paul's owing to its elevation (about 50 feet above the plain), and the water which almost surrounds it, are in general remarkably clean. The population amounts to full 15,000 souls; perhaps nearly 20,000; the clergy, including all ranks of religious orders, may be reckoned at 500. Here are few manufactures of any consequence: a little coarse cotton is spun by the hand, and woven into cloth, which serves for a variety of wearing apparel, sheets, &c.

Santa Cruz is situated on the island St. Catherine, which is separated from the continent, in south lat. 27 and 29 deg., by a narrow strait, in some places scarcely half a league wide. The produce of the island consists in rice, maize, mandiocca, coffee of excellent quality, oranges, perhaps the finest in the world, and a variety of other fruits.

There are few towns of any consequence in the interior. Those that have been formed owe their settlement to the mines, and amongst which Tejuco is the most considerable.

Tejuco being situated in a sterile district, which produces nothing for the maintenance of its inhabitants, in number about 6000, depends, for a supply of provisions, on farms situated several leagues distant. At no place are there seen a greater proportion of indigent people, particularly of females. Yet, notwithstanding the idleness of the inhabitants, Tejuco may be called flourishing, on account of the circulation of property created by the diamond works. The annual sum paid by government for the hire of negroes, salaries of officers, and various necessities, such as nitre and iron, does not amount to less than 35,000*l.*; and this, added to the demands of the inhabitants of the town and its vicinity, occasions a considerable trade. The shops are stocked with English cottons, baizes, and cloths, and other manufactured goods; also hams, cheese, butter, porter, and other articles of consumption. Mules from *Bahia* and *Rio de Janeiro* come loaded with them.

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Trade and Commerce.—Since the establishment of the treaty of commerce between the British government and that of Brazil, the contraband trade has been almost done away; for the duties are now much reduced, and the accommodation which the judge and subordinate officers of the custom-house are disposed to allow is such, as to render that nefarious practice unnecessary.

Iron and steel are articles for which there is a general and constant demand. The smiths prefer Swedish iron, as they have been always accustomed to it, and do not know how to heat and work the English. The next article to be mentioned is salt, in which the Brazilians are by no means nice. It is made and loaded at one or two places on the coast; but that which is most esteemed comes from the Cape de Verd islands: that brought from Liverpool is generally used in the sea-ports. Common woollens, baizes, and some stout fine cloths, particularly blue and black, are generally worn; also kerseymere. Cotton goods of every description, especially if low priced, meet with ready sale. Hats of all sorts (particularly dress-hats), and boots and shoes of English manufacture, have of late been sold in great quantities: the leather is much preferable to that made in Brazil. Common and finer earthenware, and glass; some sorts of fine and coarse hardware; some plated goods, as candles now begin to be used instead of lamps. Bottled porter, Cheshire cheese, butter, cheap furniture, tin-plate, brass, lead in various shapes, shot of all sizes, gunpowder, drugs, some philosophical instruments, books, low-priced paper, watches, telescopes, salt provisions, as hams, tongues, and barrelled pork, low-priced saddlery, and, most of all, India and other goods fit for the African coast. Marble mortars, mirrors, and many fancy articles of less note. Silk and cotton hosiery, fashionable dresses for ladies, particularly fine stockings and shoes.

It is to be observed, that the mother country still continues to send oil, wine, brandy, linens, cottons, some silk, and a variety of articles of inferior consequence. India goods, consisting chiefly of cottons, are sent from the Malabar coast, and China goods are in great plenty. From North America are

imported flour, salt provisions, turpentine, tar, staves, household furniture, &c. Naval stores, clothing for sailors, arms, &c. may be said to be generally in demand.

The staple articles of trade from Brazil and the river Plate which are most in demand in England, when its markets are not overstocked, are cotton, coffee, hides, tallow of good quality, horns, hair, fur-skins, and feathers. Sugar cannot be enumerated among them, as existing colonial regulations prevent it from being generally used: but Brazil is well calculated for growing it, having every convenience of situation, and all the materials requisite for machinery. To the above may be added some wood; that beautiful species called jacaranda, here denominated rose-wood, is subject to so high a duty in this country, that it cannot be generally introduced for cabinet use, that from the East Indies excepted. Indigo is in general inferior. Rice of excellent quality is cultivated to great extent. Tobacco, it is to be hoped, will be better cured, to suit the English market; for now where can a soil and climate be found more favourable to the production of that plant than in Brazil.

Since the emigration of the court from Lisbon, Rio de Janeiro may be truly called the mart of South America, and is likely to become a general depot of goods from the four quarters of the globe: yet its commerce to Africa, to India, and the islands in the Indian sea belonging to the crown of Portugal, as well as its intercourse with China, has scarcely been entered into. So many disappointments, caused by the political events in the mother country, and so unexpected an influx of goods from England, occasioned such a stagnation in commercial dealings, that the opulent merchants were determined not to speculate. When trade shall have resumed its regular channel, Rio de Janeiro will, no doubt, be a grand and general market for the produce of all the ancient Portuguese possessions: it will be a kind of half-way house between Europe and India, and every description of Asiatic produce will be found in its warehouses. Brazil, freed from colonial restrictions, will soon become doubly populous; its gold, instead of being transported to foreign countries as heretofore,

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will circulate among the inhabitants; and, under a wise legislature, it is reasonable to hope, that in twenty years this great country will rise in prosperity more than any other in the same space of time.

Government.—The government of this important country is at present directed by the prince regent of Portugal, who has not yet evinced any disposition to return amidst the stormy politics of Europe. The country is divided into *captaincies*, over each of which a governor presides, who has a military force to support his measures. Several useful regulations and important improvements have been made by the government, since the emigration of the Portuguese court.

Revenue.—A fifth upon all gold obtained in the mines, and ten per cent. upon the products of the land, form the principal branches of the revenue. The duties upon imports and exports are also considerable.

Army.—The military establishment of Brazil is considerable compared with the population. Every Portuguese and Creole, besides a great number of free blacks, are enrolled in the militia, which, aided by the nature of the country, might offer a formidable opposition to an invading enemy.

History.—The discovery of the Brazils was merely accidental. It was first settled by convicts; but afterwards adventurers of different descriptions joined the colony, which was increased by the importation of slaves from Africa. In a short time, the whole sea coast, upwards of 2000 miles, was in some measure settled. But when Portugal fell into the power of Spain, the Dutch, who had revolted from the tyranny of that power, turned their arms upon Brazil: and they would have overran the whole, if Don Michael de Texiera, the archbishop, had not taken arms, and at the head of his monks and a few scattered forces, put a stop to the torrent of the Dutch conquest. He made a gallant stand until succours arrived; and then resigned the commission with which the public necessity and his own virtue had armed him, into the hands of a person appointed by authority. By this stand, he saved seven of the captainships, or provinces, out of fourteen, into which Brazil is divided; the rest fell into the hands of

the Dutch, who conquered and kept them with a bravery and conduct, which would deserve more applause if it had been governed by humanity.

The famous captain, prince Maurice of Nassau, was the person to whom the Dutch owed this conquest, the establishment of their colony there, and that advantageous peace which secured them in it. But as it is the genius of mercantile people to desire a sudden profit in all their designs; and as this colony was not under the immediate inspection of the States, but subject to the company called the West India company, the latter acted in such a manner as compelled the prince to resign. The impolitic economy and severity of the company at length encouraged the Portuguese, who reconquered the Brazils; but not till after a struggle in which the States displayed great vigour, though too late.

Since this struggle for the sovereignty of Brazil, nothing remarkable occurred in its history, except a feeble attempt of the Creoles to throw off the Portuguese yoke, until the arrival of the court from Portugal in 1807. The adoption of this measure, in any case of extreme necessity, had frequently been suggested. But at the period of the French invasion, the prince regent evinced the most extreme reluctance to quit the shores of that country he had so long governed; though lord Strangford was indefatigable in his attempts to confirm the resolution of the court, and was perpetually contrasting the independence and glory of the new empire in South America, with the abject vassalage and contemptible insignificance which alone could be expected were the prince to remain in Europe. At last, Bonaparte's declaration, that the house of Braganza had ceased to reign, removed every objection; and accordingly, on the morning of the 29th of November, the Portuguese fleet sailed out of the Tagus, with the whole of the royal family of Braganza, and a considerable number of faithful counsellors, and respectable and opulent adherents. The fleet consisted of eight sail of the line and four large frigates, and several other vessels of war, besides a number of Brazil ships, and amounted in all to 86 sail, containing about 18,000 Portuguese subjects. As they passed through the British

squadron, a reciprocal salute was fired, and the spectacle was, in several respects, grand and interesting.

On the arrival of the court at Rio de Janeiro, several public measures were suggested by the conde de Linhares, and adopted by the prince regent, that have eminently tended to accelerate the progress of improvement in this grand division of South America, which seems destined to form one of the most wealthy, populous, and powerful empires on earth.

An unsuccessful attempt was lately made at Pernambuco to revolutionize the Brazils: but although it failed, the example of the patriots in the neighbouring countries must tend to keep alive the desire for independence, which the imbecile and stupid court at Rio de Janeiro is little calculated either to soothe or to repress.

FRENCH DOMINIONS.

THE French settlements in Guiana were first formed about the year 1635, and extend from the mouth of a small river called Amano on the west, to another called Aracara on the east; though recently the limit was attempted to be extended, at the expence of the Portuguese, to the estuary of the Marañon. On the south the line seems arbitrary; but the whole extent does not exceed 350 British miles in length, by 240 in breadth. The chief town is on a small isle called Cayenne, whence the whole territory is commonly styled Cayenne. The soil and climate in general seem unexceptionable; but the situation of the town being ill chosen, in a swampy isle, its disadvantages have been laxly ascribed to the whole possession. The inland parts remain obstructed by thick forests and underwood; and during the rains many

parts are inundated. The dry season is from June till October, and the heaviest rains in our winter months.

Different French companies were formed, but successively failed in their attempts to improve this colony. The English took it in 1667, and it was afterwards taken by the Dutch in 1676, but at peace restored to the French. In 1688, the colonists undertook a plundering expedition, which failing, gave a severe shock to the prosperity of the colony, which has ever since languished at Cayenne. Soon after the peace of 1763, the French court made vigorous efforts to give importance to this settlement. Twelve thousand men, engaged in France as labourers, were landed; but as no habitation or proper provision had been made for them, ten thousand of these wretched beings in consequence perished, and the survivors demanding to return to Europe, were unwillingly brought back. About a million sterling was uselessly expended on this enterprise. The fugitive planters, who had fled from St. Domingo at the revolution, have, however, done some good to the colony. Cayenne was recently occupied by a Portuguese garrison, but restored to France in 1814.

The first production of Cayenne was arnotto, a red dye. Cotton, indigo, and sugar, were next introduced; and, in 1721, coffee was brought from Surinam. Twelve years after, they planted cocoa. In 1763, the population and production stood thus: 500 whites, who employed 1500 negroes and 1200 native Indians, and produced about 260,000 lbs. of arnotto, 80,000 lbs. of sugar, 18,000 lbs. of cotton, 27,000 lbs. of coffee, 92,000 lbs. of cocoa, and this is still nearly the situation of the colony. The cultivation of indigo, which at one time was carried on successfully, has greatly fallen off. Cayenne pepper is the most noted product of this country; and, the inhabitants using it to excess, a considerable quantity is always imported from Peru. The town contains about 1200 white inhabitants, exclusive of the garrison. During the French revolution, several eminent men were banished to this inhospitable colony.

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ENGLISH DOMINIONS.

THESE valuable possessions in Guiana, which Great Britain recently obtained, were originally settled by the Dutch. English Guiana is situated to the north-west of the French settlement. The length, south-east to north-west, is about 350 British miles along the shores of the Atlantic; but the breadth only 160. It is divided into three different governments, Surinam, Berbice, and Essequibo, which it may be proper to notice separately, after taking a general view of the whole.

Climate.—Some have reported the climate of Guiana to be mild and wholesome, in consequence of receiving the trade wind fresh from the ocean. All the disorders known in hot countries are, however, very prevalent.

Animals.—The laubba, about the size of a large cat, is peculiar to this part of America. Snakes are numerous. The aboma, when full grown, is 30 feet in length, and three feet in circumference at the middle of the body. The red and yellow mackaw are also peculiar to Guiana. The galvanic eel is often found in the river Essequibo. This country likewise abounds with those dangerous animals and tormenting insects that usually inhabit the hot regions of South America.

Botany.—In consequence of the swampy soil and moist atmosphere of this region, vegetation presents a vigour and wild exuberance perhaps without parallel. Here are two peculiar species of palm, the annotta, the quassia, several medicinal plants, and fatal poisons. The silk-cotton-tree of Guiana generally grows to the height of 100 feet. Its trunk is about twelve feet in circumference. The trunk is often made use of for canoes, which are formed by hollowing them with fire.

Demerary.—This province derives its name from the river so called. Its extent of sea coast is nearly 100 miles, running

west and by north, and west: it is bounded on the east by Berbice, and to the westward by Essequibo. The river, at its entrance, is nearly a mile and a half broad, and has a bar four miles without of mud, over which no vessel drawing more than nine feet, can pass until half flood: but at high water and spring tides, there are eighteen feet on this bar. Within the entrance is a battery called Fort William Frederic, mounting eighteen heavy pieces of cannon. Half a mile east from it is a block-house, which has a commanding view of the sea, and a communication by signal with Berbice, which gives immediate notice of any vessel being off the coast.

The river Demerary is navigable for large vessels about 100 miles above its mouth. It is settled for nearly another 100 miles further inland. At that distance are cataracts, or rapids, which obstruct navigation; but which, on account of the romantic mountainous scenery around, are occasionally visited by parties of pleasure.

This settlement was formed by the Dutch in 1663; but four years afterwards they were expelled by the English, whose descendants form part of the colony. It was resumed by the Dutch in 1676. Demerary was first considered a dependency of Essequibo; but in 1774, having extended itself to a surprising degree, and offering a superior harbour to the other, it was determined to make that the residence of the governor, and capital of the two colonies: for that purpose the town of Stabroek was commenced about a mile from the fort, and on the same side the river; whilst a commandeur, or deputy governor, was now appointed for the Essequibo. Seven years after this change, an English privateer took possession of the two colonies, in the name of his Britannic majesty; such was the weak state in which Holland left her colonies. The British commanders at Barbadoes were on the eve of sending troops to the garrison, in order to fortify them, when information was received that the English, in their turn, had been obliged to capitulate to a French corvette. In 1783, at the general peace, the colonies were ceded to the Dutch. During the late war, these, with the other possessions of the Dutch in the West Indies, were entirely neglected,

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In 1795, the burghers joined with the rangers and a body of Indians in subduing the bush negroes, who had become very troublesome. In the following year, the colony surrendered to an expedition dispatched by Sir Ralph Abercromby, in conformity to a secret application from several opulent planters. The British capital now invested in the colonies made them of serious importance, and a grand object with the mercantile and monied interest of Great Britain to retain; the mere claims on them being estimated, at the time of the peace of Amiens, at ten millions sterling. Yet, notwithstanding these possessions were given up, and on the 3d of December were taken possession of by the Batavian troops, the governor, who evinced the most ostentatious dislike to the British, inflicted many serious evils upon the colony; which, however, were but of short continuance, as, on the renewal of the war, the British flag once more waved over these colonies, which were ceded in perpetuity to England, at the peace of Paris, in 1814.

The origin of *Stabroek* has been already explained. It is the principal seat of exchange for the produce of all the countries adjacent to the Demerary and Essequibo, and is situated on the east side of the river Demerary. Its site is low and level. It has an oblong form, being about one-fourth of a mile broad, and one mile long. The principal streets are quite straight, with carriage roads. A navigable canal on each side of the town, which fills and empties with the tide, affords a great convenience to those houses which are not situated near the water side. The population in *Stabroek* consists of about 1500 whites, 2000 free people of colour, and 5000 negroes.

Dutchmen, and other foreigners, differ in some points of their living and household economy from the English. Their general hour of rising is with the sun, about a quarter before six, when they make their appearance in a morning gown and slippers, in the portico or piazza of the house, where a few ale negro is in waiting with the coffee equipage. After a Dutch planter has taken a dish or two of strong coffee, with little or no sugar in it, the yonge, or boy, brings him his pipe, tobacco,

and flask of gin: with these he enjoys himself till between nine and ten o'clock, when he is visited by the butler, or overseer of the estate, who reports progress, and receives orders. He then dresses himself, and calls for a glass of water and a napkin to wash his hands and face with.

About eleven o'clock, the Dutchman sits down to a table covered with various kinds of animal food, vegetable soups, and fruit. Pepper-pot, a soup flavoured with the juice of the bitter cassada, and made pungent with red and green pepper is a constant concomitant. Madeira wine and water, and malt liquor, are substituted for tea. After this, he orders his horse and pays a visit to some of his neighbours, or rides round the estate to see the negroes at work ; in either of which cases a negro boy follows him on foot, with a pouch of segars and a stick of fire. It is his constant practice, whether on horseback, walking, or riding in a carriage, to smoke, and be supplied through the medium of a servant. He dines about three or four o'clock, and, after taking a portion of claret, retires for his afternoon's nap, where he sleeps away the fatigues of the day. He grows tired of the hammock towards evening, when he comes down and takes his coffee, after which, a walk round the buildings, to enquire into the state of the negroes and their work, concludes the day. The general hour for retiring to rest in the country, is about eight or nine o'clock ; the intermediate time between this and sunset is occupied by smoking and drinking gin.

The population presents a strange mixture of Europeans. Dutch, Germans, Prussians, Russians, Swedes, Danes, Spaniards, French, and Americans, may be incorporated as one-third of the white population, and Great Britain claims the other two. All national enmity seems to be forgotten, while the pursuits of the motley group are directed unanimously to climbing the ladder of fortune. When an European arrives, he finds it necessary to provide himself with a housekeeper, or mistress. The choice he has an opportunity of making is various; a black, a tawney, a mulatto, or a mestee; one of which can be purchased for 100*l.* or 150*l.* sterling, fully competent to fulfil all the duties of her station: some of them are so

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much educated as to be able to read and write. They are tasty and extravagant in their dress; but when once an attachment takes place, it is inviolable. They embrace all the duties of a wife, except presiding at table; so far decorum is maintained, and a distinction made. They employ themselves in needle-work, and other domestic affairs. Their usefulness in preserving the arts and diffusing the habits of cleanliness is felt and allowed by all, there being very few civilized European women.

The produce cleared from the port of Demerary, since the last establishment of the British custom-house, is as follows, viz.—From the 5th of January, 1806, to the 5th of January, 1807, in 221 vessels, 19,337 hogsheads, 474 tierces, and 801 barrels of sugar; 4722 puncheons and 17 hogsheads of rum; 23,604 bales and 2 bags of cotton; 12,390,102 pounds of coffee; and 1694 casks of molasses.

Essequibo.—Nine miles west of the Demerary is the river Essequibo, which at its mouth, commencing from Borasierri, and extending to Kapoeja creek, is 21 miles broad; the former serves as a boundary to the two colonies. The navigation here is very dangerous and difficult, even for small craft, which arises from banks of sand running in different directions across the entrance. Many estates and settlements are already made on its banks, and it is also the residence of several timber-cutters and brick-makers, the soil for which is particularly good.

The settlements of Essequibo and Demerary, from their conjunction with each other, are under the directions of one governor, though two distinct colonies: but each has its court of justice and subordinate officers.

Berbice.—Berbice river is at the mouth a mile and a half broad, and in the centre is an island called Crab island. A bar of sand five miles without the river, running from east to west, prevents vessels drawing more than fourteen feet from entering the river; this navigation is more dangerous than that of the Demerary, from the obstructions to it being of sand.

Berbice, by the old boundary, is bounded on the east by the Devil's creek, and on the west by Abarry creek, which sea

parates that colony from Demerary. The river Berbice is shallow, but broad; nearly an hundred plantations have been formed on its banks. The directors of the colony obtain from it chiefly sugar. It also supplies cotton, coffee, cocoa, tobacco, and a dyeing stuff called rokou. The goods carried thither are the same as those traded with in the rest of the West Indies.

New Amsterdam, the name of the town, is built on the south side of the Canje river, running in that direction up the banks of the Berbice a mile and a half, with the houses facing the water. The houses are different from those of Stabroek: they are not more than a story and a half high, very long and narrow, with galleries on either side, for the purpose of walking and smoking in the shade.

When Surinam capitulated to the British in August, 1799, it conceded to Berbice the tract of country between the Devil's creek and the Courintine. This addition of territory was a favourable circumstance for Berbice. The sea coast, extending nearly 50 miles, and the west bank of the Courintine, were immediately surveyed and laid out into regular allotments. British capital, industry, and perseverance, had accomplished, in eight years, what would not have been done by any other means in half a century.

Surinam.—This valuable settlement is bounded on the east by the river Marawina, and on the west by the river Courintine: it is about 150 miles from east to west, and 60 from north to south. The river, from which it derives its name, has sand banks at its mouth, over which there is about three fathom water at high tide; but above these banks the water is much deeper, and the river navigable for large vessels above 90 miles up the country.

This colony was first settled in 1634 by the English and a party of French. In 1667, it was taken by the Dutch, when 1200 of its oldest inhabitants removed to Jamaica. The prosperity of this colony has been much impeded by the inhuman wars carried on by the settlers against the Maroon negroes. Since it was taken by the English, peace and commerce have flourished.

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The principal town in Surinam, and the capital of the English Guiana, is *Parimaribo*, situated on the right side of the river Surinam; at about 16 or 18 miles from its mouth. It is built on a sand-reef, well arranged, and the streets include beautiful alleys of orange and lemon trees. The houses are of wood, and have no chimnies; the kitchens, for coolness sake, are detached; it is a town far advanced in the arts of civilised life, above a mile in length, wide in proportion, and swarming already with an ever-thickening crowd of many-coloured inhabitants. The population of *Parimaribo* is estimated at 18 or 20,000 persons. Of these, the larger half, at least 10,000 persons, are negro and mulatto slaves. The free people of colour are supposed to be about 4000. There are from 2 to 3000 German and Portuguese Jews; and about 1800 English and Dutch Europeans. The number of temporary residents, as in all sea ports, varies with the season.

The products of this settlement, in 1775, amounted to 822,905*l.*; but the present amount is above four times this sum. The population, at the same period, amounted to 100,000. Since the possession of this and the adjoining settlements was guaranteed by treaty to Great Britain, several regulations have been established, highly advantageous to the trade of Holland, and favourable to the Dutch colonists.

English-Guiana is rising rapidly into consequence. Several millions sterling have recently been employed in forming new plantations, and in facilitating the communication between the different settlements. Nor is it at all improbable, but that, at no very distant period, this fertile country may excel the West Indies in riches, population, and political consequence.

PARAGUAY.

THE wide regions so called, and which border on the Uruguay, is celebrated as the seat of the wonderful labours of the Jesuits, who established their power both over the bodies and the minds of the inhabitants of this province. In 1767, the Jesuits were driven from America by order of the king of Spain, and their unfortunate converts degraded to the same footing as the other indigenous inhabitants of the country.

PATAGONIA.

THE aspect of this country is very singular. There is an immense tract of territory impregnated with nitre, about 600 miles in length and 150 wide, on the south and west of the river Parana, and even to the junction of the Paraguay; all the springs and rivulets being more or less saline. No productive mines have yet been discovered, except some of silver, near Mendoza, at the bottom of the Andes. The rivers that wash this country all come from the high mountains of Yacanto, or Sacanto, Champachin, and Achala on the west of Cordova, which are little inferior in height to the Andes of Chili, and are a kind of branches of those of Peru. That part of the Andes which lies west of Mendoza is of a vast height, and always covered with snow; and there are numerous volcanoes in the southern part of the Andes, as that of St. Clement, lat. 46 deg., and others in a continued progress to lat. 31 deg.

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The Patagonians are represented to be a large and robust race. Both men and women are dextrous riders. They subsist chiefly by hunting, in which they are assisted by dogs. They eat raw flesh, and, like most miserable savages, have little regard for cleanliness.

ISLANDS.

Margaretta. **THIS** mountainous island, situated opposite the city of Curiana in the Caraccas, is supposed to be a volcanic production. It is about 30 leagues in circumference, and is celebrated as being one of the first discoveries of Columbus.

Juan Fernandez.—Juan Fernandez lies to the west of South America, about 800 miles from the coast of Chili. This romantic isle, diversified with woods and water, with craggy hills and fertile spots, is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It appears that Alexander Selkirk, a seaman and a native of Scotland, was put ashore, and left in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived some years, and was discovered by Woodes Rogers in 1709.

Chiloe.—There are two remarkable archipelagos towards the southern extremity of this continent: that styled the gulf of Chonos, or the archipelago of Guaytecas; and that called the gulf of the Holy Trinity, or the archipelago of Toledo. The most remarkable isle in the former is that of Chiloe, about 140 British miles in length by 30 in breadth, but almost divided in the middle by bays or creeks. The chief harbour is Chacao on the north, and at Calbuco there is a corregidor, nominated by the president of Chili: there are also two mo-

nasteries and a church. The isle of Chiloe is said to be well peopled with Spaniards, mulattoes, and converted savages.

Terra del Fuego.—This island, although never visited by European navigators but in the summer months, is described as among the most dreary and desolate spots on the habitable earth, and the few inhabitants upon it as the most miserable and destitute of the human race.

Falkland Islands.—There are two islands of this name, each about 40 miles square. The soil and climate do not appear to be good; but there is a considerable variety of fowls and fish, and the plants seem somewhat to resemble those of Canada. In 1764, commodore Byron was sent to take possession of these islands, which were undoubtedly first discovered by the English; and a little establishment was made at a place called Port Egmont; but being found of little or no value, they were in a few years ceded to Spain.

Fernando de Noronha.—This small Portuguese island is situated nearly four degrees southward of the line, and is about 15 miles in length and five or six in breadth. It is remarkable on account of a very lofty peak, supposed to be about 700 feet above the level of the sea. It is a bare rock or column of granite, nearly perpendicular, but slopes a little to its base towards the north. The soil of this island is fruitful, and it possesses a good open bay, with good anchorage in ten fathoms water, which is protected by a fort built upon an adjoining cliff.

But as this island is singular in its natural appearance, so it is perhaps no less remarkable for being the only inhabited spot, of similar extent, on the surface of the globe, where no women are allowed to come, it being allotted to male criminals, who, with a small garrison and a number of priests, compose the whole population. Perhaps also there is not any equal body of men on earth, that exhibit at once so much holy mummery, and so much human depravity.

This island, from being almost in the direct track of vessels trading from Europe to the Brazils, and its vicinity to the main land of South America, would, if possessed by a naval power, disturb the whole commerce of this part of the continent.

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DESCRIPTION

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AMERICA.

THE aborigines of America, throughout the whole extent of the two vast continents which they inhabit, and amongst the infinite number of nations and tribes into which they are divided, differ very little from each other in their manners and customs; and they all form a very striking picture of the most distant antiquity. By taking a general view of the whole, the peculiarities that distinguish the most important tribes will be more easily perceived and understood.

The people of America are tall, and straight in their limbs beyond the proportion of most nations: their bodies are strong; but of a species of strength rather fitted to endure much hardship, than to continue long at any servile work, by which they are quickly consumed; it is the strength of a beast of prey, rather than that of a beast of burthen. Their bodies and heads are flattish, the effect of art; their features are regular, but their countenances fierce; their hair long, black, lank, and as strong as that of a horse. The colour of their skin a reddish brown, admired amongst them, and improved by the constant use of bear's fat and paint.

When the Europeans first came into America, they found the people quite naked, except those parts which it is common for the most uncultivated people to conceal. Since that time, they have generally a coarse blanket to cover them, which they buy from us. The whole fashion of their lives is of a piece;

hardy, poor, and squalid; and their education from their infancy is solely directed to fit their bodies for this mode of life, and to form their minds to inflict and to endure the greatest evils.

Their only occupations are hunting and war. Agriculture is left to the women. Merchandise they contemn. When their hunting season is past, which they go through with much patience, and in which they exert great ingenuity, they pass the rest of their time in an entire indolence. They sleep half the day in their huts, they loiter and jest among their friends, and they observe no bounds or decency in their eating and drinking. Before we discovered them, they had no spirituous liquors; but now, the acquirement of these is what gives a spur to their industry, and enjoyment to their repose. This is the principal end they pursue in their treaties; and from this they suffer inexpressible calamities; for, having once begun to drink, they can preserve no measures, but continue a succession of drunkenness as long as their means of procuring liquor lasts. In this condition they lie exposed on the earth to all the inclemency of the seasons, which wastes them by a train of the most fatal disorders; they perish in rivers and marshes; they tumble into the fire; they quarrel, and very frequently murder each other; and, in short, excess in drinking, which with us is rather immoral than destructive, amongst this uncivilised people, who have not art enough to guard against the consequence of their vices, is a public calamity. The few amongst them, who live free from this evil, enjoy the reward of their temperance in a robust and healthy old age.

The character of the Indians is striking. They are grave even to sadness in their deportment upon any serious occasion; observant of those in company; respectful to the old; of a temper cool and deliberate; by which they are never in haste to speak before they have thought well upon the matter, and are sure the person who spoke before them has finished all he had to say. They have therefore the greatest contempt for the vivacity of the Europeans, who interrupt each other, and frequently speak all together. Nothing is more edifying than their behaviour in their public councils and assemblies. Every man there is heard in his turn, according as his years, his

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wisdom, or his services to his country, have ranked him. Not a word, not a whisper, not a murmur, is heard from the rest while he speaks. No indecent condemnation, no ill-timed applause. The younger sort attend for their instruction. Here they learn the history of their nation; here they are inflamed with the songs of those who celebrate the warlike actions of their ancestors; and here they are taught what are the interests of their country; and how to pursue them.

There is no people amongst whom the laws of hospitality are more sacred, or executed with more generosity and goodwill. Their houses, their provision, even their young women, are not enough to oblige a guest. To those of their own nation they are likewise very humane and beneficent. But to the enemies of his country, or to those who have privately offended, the American is implacable. He conceals his sentiments, he appears reconciled, until by some treachery or surprise he has an opportunity of executing an horrible revenge. No length of time is sufficient to allay his resentment: no distance of place great enough to protect the object: he crosses the steepest mountains, he pierces the most impracticable forests, and traverses the most hideous bogs and deserts for several hundreds of miles, bearing the inclemency of the seasons, the fatigue of the expedition, the extremes of hunger and thirst, with patience and cheerfulness, in hopes of surprising his enemy, on whom he exercises the most shocking barbarities, even to the eating of his flesh. To such extremes do the Indians push their friendship or their enmity; and such indeed in general is the character of all strong and uncultivated minds.

Notwithstanding this ferocity, no people have their anger, or at least the shew of their anger, more under their command. From their infancy they are formed with care to endure scoffs, taunts, blows, and every sort of insult patiently, or at least with a composed countenance. This is one of the principal objects of their education. They esteem nothing so unworthy a man of sense and constancy, as a peevish temper, and a proneness to sudden and rash anger. And this so far has an effect, that quarrels happen as rarely amongst them when they

are not intoxicated with liquor, as does the chief cause of all quarrels, hot and abusive language. But human nature is such, that, as virtues may with proper management be engrafted upon almost all sorts of vicious passions, so vices naturally grow out of the best dispositions, and are the consequence of those regulations that produce and strengthen them. This is the reason that, when the passions of the Americans are roused, being shut up, as it were, and converging into a narrow point, they become more furious; they are dark, sullen, treacherous, and unappeasable.

A people who live by hunting, who inhabit mean cottages, and are given to change the place of their habitation, are seldom very religious. Some appear to have very little idea of God. Others entertain better notions: they hold the existence of the Supreme Being, eternal and incorruptible, who has power over all. Satisfied with owning this, which is traditional amongst them, they give him no sort of worship. There are indeed nations in America, who seem to pay some religious homage to the sun and moon; and, as most of them have a notion of some invisible beings, who continually intermeddle in their affairs, they discourse much of demons, nymphs, fairies, or beings equivalent. Though without religion, they abound in superstitions; as it is common for those to do, whose subsistence depends, like theirs, upon fortune. Great observers of omens and dreams, and pry into futurity with great eagerness, they abound in diviners, augurs, and magicians, whom they rely much upon in all affairs that concern them, whether of health, war, or hunting. Their physic, which may be rather called magic, is entirely in the hands of the priests.

The loss of any one of their people, whether by a natural death or by war, is lamented by the whole town he belongs to. In such circumstances, no business is taken in hand, however important, nor any rejoicing permitted, however interesting the occasion, until all the pious ceremonies due to the dead are performed. These are always discharged with the greatest solemnity. The dead body is washed, anointed, and painted, so as in some measure to abate the horrors of death. Then the women lament the loss with the most bitter cries, and the

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most hideous howlings, intermixed with songs, which celebrate the great actions of the deceased, and those of his ancestors. The men mourn in a less extravagant manner. The whole village attends the body to the grave, where it is interred, habited in their most sumptuous ornaments. With the body of the deceased are placed his bow and arrows, with what he valued most in his life, and provisions for the long journey he is to take: for they hold the immortality of the soul universally, but their idea is gross. Feasting attends this, as it does every solemnity. After the funeral, they who are nearly allied to the deceased conceal themselves in their huts for a considerable time, to indulge their grief. The compliments of condolence are never omitted, nor are presents wanting upon this occasion. After some time, they revisit the grave: they renew their sorrows; they new clothe the remains of the body, and act over again the solemnities of the first funeral.

Of all their instances of regard to their deceased friends, none is so striking as what they call the feast of the dead, or the feast of souls. The day of this ceremony is appointed in the council of their chiefs, who give orders for every thing which may enable them to celebrate it with pomp and magnificence. The riches of the nation are exhausted on this occasion, and all their ingenuity displayed. The neighbouring people are invited to partake of the feast, and to be witnesses of the solemnity. At this time, all who have died since the last solemn feast of that kind are taken out of their graves. Those who have been interred at the greatest distance from the villages are diligently sought for, and brought to this great rendezvous of carcases. It is not difficult to conceive the horror of this general disinterment. 'Without question,' says Lafitau, 'the opening of these tombs displays one of the most striking scenes that can be conceived; this humbling portrait of human misery, in so many images of death, wherein she seems to take a pleasure to paint herself in a thousand various shapes of horror, in the several carcases, according to the degree in which corruption has prevailed over them, or the manner in which it has attacked them. Some appear dry and withered; others have a sort of parchment upon their bones;

some lack as if they were baked and smoked, without any appearance of rottenness; some are just turning towards the point of putrefaction; whilst others are all swarming with worms, and drowned in corruption. I know not which ought to strike us most, the horror of so shocking a sight, or the tender piety and affection of these poor people towards their departed friends; for nothing deserves our admiration more, than that eager diligence and attention with which they discharge this melancholy duty of their tenderness; gathering up carefully even the smallest bones; handling the carcases, disgusting as they are, with every thing loathsome; cleansing them from the worms, and carrying them upon their shoulders through tiresome journeys of several days, without being discouraged by their insupportable stench, and without suffering any other emotions to arise, than those of regret, for having lost persons who were so dear to them in their lives, and so lamented in their death.

This strange festival is the most magnificent and solemn which they have; not only on account of the great concourse of natives and strangers, and of the pompous reinterment they give to their dead, whom they dress in the finest skins they can get, after having exposed them for some time in this pomp; but for the games of all kinds which they celebrate upon the occasion, in the spirit of those which the ancient Greeks and Romans celebrated upon similar occasions.

In this manner do they endeavour to sooth the calamities of life, by the honours they pay their dead; honours which are the more cheerfully bestowed, because in his turn each man expects to receive them himself. Though amongst these savage nations this custom is impressed with strong marks of the ferocity of their nature; an honour for the dead, a tender feeling of their absence, and a revival of their memory, are some of the most excellent instruments for smoothing our rugged nature into humanity. In civilised nations ceremonies are less practised, because other instruments for the same purposes are less wanted; but it is certain a regard for the dead is ancient and universal.

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Though the women in America have generally the laborious part of the economy upon themselves, yet they are far from being the slaves they appear, and are not at all subject to the great subordination in which they are placed in countries where they seem to be more respected. On the contrary, all the honours of the nation are on the side of the women. They even hold their councils, and have their share in all deliberations which concern the state; nor are they found inferior in the part they act. Polygamy is practised by some nations, but it is not general. In most they content themselves with one wife; but a divorce is admitted, and for the same causes that it was allowed amongst the Jews, Greeks, and Romans. No nation of the Americans is without a regular marriage, in which there are many ceremonies; the principal of which is, the bride's presenting the bridegroom with a plate of their corn.

Incontinent before wedlock, after marriage the chastity of their women is remarkable. The punishment of the adulteress, as well as that of the adulterer, is in the hands of the husband himself; and it is often severe, as inflicted by one who is at once the party and the judge. Their marriages are not fruitful, seldom producing above two or three children, but they are brought forth with less pain than our women suffer upon such occasions, and with little consequent weakness. Probably, that severe life, which both sexes lead, is not favourable to procreation. And the habit unmarried women have of procuring abortions, in which they rarely fail, makes them more unfit for bearing children afterwards. This is one of the reasons of the depopulation of America; for whatever losses they suffer, either by epidemical diseases or by war, are repaired slowly.

Almost the sole occupation of the American is war, or such an exercise as qualifies him for it. His whole glory consists in this; and no man is at all considered until he has increased the strength of his country with a captive, or adorned his house with a scalp of one of its enemies. When the ancients resolve upon war, they do not always declare what nation it is they are determined to attack; that the enemy, upon whom they really intend to fall, may be off his guard. Nay, they

even sometimes let years pass over without committing any act of hostility; that the vigilance of all may be unbest by the long continuance of the watch, and the uncertainty of the danger.

The day appointed for their departure being arrived, they take leave of their friends; they change their clothes, or whatever moveables they have, in token of mutual friendship; their wives and female relations go out before them, and attend at some distance from the town. The warriors march out all dressed in their finest apparel, and most showy ornaments, regularly one after another, for they never march in rank. The chief walks slowly on before them, singing the death song, while the rest observe the most profound silence. When they come up to their women, they deliver up to them all their finery, put on their worst clothes, and then proceed as their commander thinks fit.

The qualities in an Indian war are vigilance and attention; to give and to avoid a surprise; and patience and strength, to endure the intolerable fatigues and hardships which always attend it. The nations of America are at an immense distance from each other, with a vast desert frontier, and hid in the bottom of hideous, and almost boundless forests. These must be traversed before they meet an enemy, who is often at such a distance as might be supposed to prevent either quarrel or danger. But, notwithstanding the secrecy of the destination of the party that first moves, the enemy has frequent notice of it, is prepared for the attack, and ready to take advantage in the same manner of the least want of vigilance in the aggressors. Their whole art of war consists in this: they never fight in the open field, but upon some very extraordinary occasions; not from cowardice, for they are brave; but they despise this method, as unworthy an able warrior, and as an affair in which fortune governs more than prudence. The principal things which help them to find out their enemies, are the smoke of their fires, which they smell at a distance almost incredible; and their tracks, in the discovery and distinguishing of which, they are possessed of a sagacity equally astonishing; for they will tell in the footsteps, which to us

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would seem most confused, the number of men that have passed, and the length of time since they have passed: they even go so far as to distinguish the several nations by the different marks of their feet, and to perceive footstaps where we could distinguish nothing less. A mind diligently intent upon one thing, and exercised by long experience, will go lengths at first view scarcely credible.

When they discover an army of their enemies, their way is to throw themselves flat on their faces among the withered leaves, the colour of which their bodies are painted to resemble exactly. They generally let a part pass unmolested; and then, rising a little, they take aim, for they are excellent marksmen, and setting up a most tremendous shout, which they call the war-cry, they pour a storm of musket-bullets upon the enemy: for they have long since laid aside the use of arrows: the party attacked returns the same cry. Every man in haste covers himself with a tree, and returns the fire of the adverse party, as soon as they raise themselves from the ground to give the second fire.

After fighting some time in this manner, the party which thinks it has the advantage rushes out of its cover, with small axes in their hands, which they dart with great address and dexterity; they redouble their cries, intimidating their enemies with menaces, and encouraging each other with a boastful display of their own brave actions. Thus being come hand to hand, the contest is soon decided; and the conquerors satiate their savage fury with the most shocking insults and barbarities to the dead, biting their flesh, tearing the scalp from their heads, and wallowing in their blood like wild beasts.

The fate of their prisoners is severe and cruel. The people of every village shew their attachment to their friends by their barbarous treatment of these unhappy victims. After mourning for the loss sustained in the war, they rush into an extravagance and frenzy of joy for their victory.

In the mean time, the fate of the prisoners remains undecided, until the old men meet, and determine concerning the distribution. It is usual to offer a slave to each house that has lost a friend; giving the preference according to the greatness

of the loss. The person who has taken the captive attends him to the door of the cottage to which he is delivered, and with him gives a belt of wampum, to shew that he has fulfilled the purpose of the expedition, in supplying the loss of a citizen. They view the present which is made them for some time; and, according as they think him or her, for it is the same, proper or improper for the business of the family, or as they take a capricious liking or displeasure to the countenance of the victim, or in proportion to their natural barbarity or their resentment for their losses, they destine concerning him, to receive him into the family, or sentence him to death. If the latter, they throw away the belt with great indignation. Then it is no longer in the power of any one to save him. The nation is assembled, as upon some great solemnity. A scaffold is raised, and the prisoner tied to the stake. Instantly he opens his death-song, and prepares for the ensuing scene of cruelty with the most undaunted courage. On the other side, they prepare to put it to the utmost proof, with every torment which the mind of man, ingenious in mischief, can invent. They begin at the extremities of his body, and gradually approach the trunk. One plucks out his nails by the roots, one by one; another takes a finger into his mouth, and tears off the flesh with his teeth; a third thrusts the finger, mangled as it is, into the bole of a pipe made red-hot, which he smokes like tobacco. They then pound his toes and fingers to pieces between two stones; they cut circles about his joints, and gashes in the fleshy parts of his limbs, which they sear immediately with red-hot irons, cutting and searing alternately; they pull off this flesh, thus mangled and roasted, bit by bit, devouring it with greediness, and smearing their faces with the blood, in an enthusiasm of horror and fury. When they have thus torn off the flesh, they twist the bare nerves and tendons about an iron, tearing and snapping them; whilst others are employed in pulling and extending the limbs themselves, in every way that can increase the torment. This continues often five or six hours together. Then they frequently unbind him, to give a breathing to their fury, to think what new torments they shall inflict, and to refresh the strength of

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the sufferer, who, wearied out with such a variety of unheard-of torments, often falls immediately into so profound a sleep, that they are obliged to apply the fire to awaken him, and renew his sufferings.

He is again fastened to the stake, and again they renew their cruelty: they stick him all over with small matches of wood that easily takes fire, but burns slowly; they continually run sharp reeds into every part of his body; they drag out his teeth with pincers, and thrust out his eyes; and lastly, after having burned his flesh from the bones with slow fires; after having so mangled the body that it is all but one wound; after having mutilated his face in such a manner as to carry nothing human in it; after having peeled the skin from the head, and poured a heap of red-hot coals or boiling water on the naked skull; they once more unbind the wretch, who, blind and staggering with pain and weakness, assaulted and pelted upon every side with clubs and stones, now up, now down, falling into their fires at every step, runs hither and thither, until one of the chiefs, whether out of compassion or weary of cruelty, puts an end to his life with a club or a dagger. The body is then put into the kettle, and this barbarous employment is succeeded by a feast as barbarous.

The women, forgetting the human as well as the female nature, and transformed into something worse than furies, act their parts, and even outdo the men, in this scene of horror. The principal persons of the country sit round the stake, smoking and looking on without the least emotion. What is the most extraordinary, the sufferer himself, in the little intervals of his torments, smokes too, appears unconcerned, and converses with his torturers about indifferent matters. Indeed, during the whole time of his execution, there seems a contest between him and them which shall exceed, they in inflicting the most horrid pains, or he in enduring them with a firmness and constancy almost above human.

They are governed by a council of elders; but business of consequence is determined in a general meeting of the whole tribe. Murder is either revenged, or compromised by the parties concerned; and each family claims a full right of judg-

ment relative to crimes committed in the same cabin. The Indians that have had a long intercourse with Europeans seem to be greatly degenerated, both in physical and mental qualities. Those of different nations, and from different parts of America connected with Canada, come annually to Quebec, to Montreal, and to other military posts, to receive the presents which the governments annually distribute amongst them; and they are thus described by a recent traveller:— 'Conceive to yourself a parcel of men, women, and children, huddled together under a wigwam, formed of pieces of wood, seven or eight feet in length, the ends fixed in the ground, and meeting at the top, form a kind of sloping frame, which is covered with the bark of the birch-tree, to keep out the inclemencies of the weather—a very poor covering indeed! They are half naked, wholly covered with dirt and oily paints, and swarming with vermin; diminutive, and weakly in their persons and appearance; and having a physiognomy, in which you look in vain for traces of intelligence. I do not mean to say that they are without the reasoning faculty, but they certainly are very stupid. I understand that their numbers decrease every year;—if they were wholly extinct, I do not think that human nature would be a great sufferer by it.'

The ravages occasioned amongst the aborigines of America by the effect of spirituous liquors and the small-pox, added to the gradual encroachments of civilized states, must, at no very distant period, annihilate the whole race. Several tribes have already become extinct; and others, once very powerful, are much reduced. The Society of Friends, in the United States, have lately sent proper persons amongst the Indians, in order to teach them the arts of agriculture and civilized life. Those who resign the practice of war and hunting, and apply themselves to the culture of the soil, may preserve the existence of a part of the native race, long after their peculiar habits are lost and forgotten.

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